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'This Freedom'

I—The British Conception of Liberty

By SIR HERBERT SAMUEL

Recent events have proved the necessity of hard thinking on the subject of our traditional liberties. 'Abstract liberty', said Burke, 'like other mere abstractions, is not to be found', and the purpose of this series of articles, which Sir Herbert Samuel here introduces, will be to remove liberty from the sphere of abstract philosophical discussion, and consider it in as concrete and definite terms as possible. What liberty do we in fact enjoy? How is this likely to be affected by the social and political changes which are taking place throughout the world? What liberty must we conserve, and what if necessary sacrifice, to ensure the maximum social efficiency in this country? What extent of liberty is desirable in religion, the press, education and private conduct? Can liberty be reconciled with internationalism? These are some of the questions which Professor Ernest Barker, Sir Norman Angell, Harold Macmillan, C. R. Attlee, Canon C. E. Raven, Douglas Jerrold and others will discuss in the following weeks

NO ONE can consider usefully the subject of liberty unless he realises from the outset that the one word covers several distinct ideas. When poets inspire a people to fight and to die for the freedom of their country; when Byron devoted his pen, his sword, his life to the cause of Greek liberty; when Mazzini, Garibaldi and Cavour strove for the freedom of Italy—it was national liberty that was in question, the overthrow of an alien dominion. But when the effort is to secure representative government; when, for example, the British people fought for a free Parliament against Charles I's doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings; or when women demand and secure equal citizenship with men—that is the question of constitutional or political liberty. And there is personal liberty, a third and distinct kind—a man's freedom to conduct his own life in his own way; to think as he likes and to communicate to others, by speech or writing, the results of his thinking; to go where he likes, to eat and drink what he likes, to be free from the restraints of laws and regulations imposed upon him from above. And there is yet a fourth kind of liberty—economic liberty. A man is not free who is hampered by poverty, oppressed by constant toil, restricted by ignorance, compelled to spend his life in an evil environment because he is too poor to go elsewhere. No law may constrain him, but economic necessity constrains him. He is not, in any true sense of the word, a free man.

Now these four kinds of liberty, though sometimes linked together, are in principle distinct. For example, Russians and Turks in the nineteenth century enjoyed national liberty, but they did not enjoy constitutional

liberty. A conscript in Great Britain during the Great War had political liberty—he shared equally with everyone else in the citizenship of his country and in the control of its affairs; but, so far as accepting or rejecting military service was concerned, he had forfeited his personal liberty. A shop-keeper or shop-assistant who, before the days of the Early Closing Acts, was working for twelve hours a day for six days a week had full freedom under the law to work shorter hours if he preferred; but he had not economic liberty to do so; if the shop-keeper closed while his competitors kept open, he would lose his business; if the shop-assistant refused to work the long hours while others did not refuse, he would lose his place. In such cases one kind of freedom may be sacrificed to some extent for the sake of another. A people, in time of national danger, may be willing to sacrifice personal freedom by accepting universal military service, for fear of having to sacrifice national freedom by being subjected to a foreign conquest. Or a minority of shop-keepers may be compelled by law to surrender their personal freedom to keep open whatever hours they choose, so that the majority of shop-keepers may not be subjected to an economic coercion that compels them to keep open for longer hours than they wish; and longer than is compatible with the proper freedom of themselves and their assistants. There can be no full freedom without adequate leisure.

It is clear, therefore, that the question is not so simple as may at first sight appear. It is not merely whether we do or do not believe in freedom as a valuable element in human life, but how far *this* freedom may conflict with *that* freedom, and whether, in a particular case, it is, or is not, worth while to make a sacrifice on the one side for the sake of a gain on the other.

The Nineteenth-Century Conception

This aspect was not realised a century ago, when the creed of Liberty was most actively propounded and was gradually spreading over a large part of the world. Liberty was regarded as a single and a simple thing. You were free if you were not subject to control—whether by an alien dominion from abroad; or by an autocratic or class dominion at home; or by the rules of government, no matter what the nature of that government might be. The Englishman's house was his castle; the owner of property 'could do what he liked with his own'; no working-man was to be compelled, whether by law or by Trade Union regulation, to work for hours or for wages other than those he was himself ready to accept.

But it was found by experience that this did not work out satisfactorily. Industrial towns and suburbs were built all over the country—unplanned, overcrowded, insanitary, ugly and mean. Generations grew up, uneducated, smirched with drunkenness and crime, decimated by diseases. An industrial system grew up, in which excessive hours of labour, wages down to the minimum of subsistence, and unrelieved unemployment were frequent and accepted features. National liberty had long been assured; constitutional liberty was gradually being completed; personal liberty prevailed in very large degree; but economic liberty was lacking. The political system promised freedom but the industrial system often denied it.

Restrictions Which Make the Individual More Free

So the nation, through its Parliament, set to work and enacted a whole series of codes—educational, sanitary, industrial; dealing with town-planning, sanitation, the sale of intoxicating liquors, early closing of shops, the sweating system, the hours of labour, unemployment insurance, health insurance—every one of them consciously interfering with liberty in some degree, but all of them, taken together, leaving the individual much more free than before. He was more free because he did in fact find himself better able than before to live his life as he would wish to live it.

These ideas have become predominant. The old conception of *laissez-faire* individualism has had, for many years past, no advocates of weight or influence in any quarter. Further advances are advocated by each of the three principal political parties, often differing greatly in their characteristics, but nevertheless tending in the same direction. State action, in matters of national development; in the management of particular industries, such as the supply of electricity, of transport facilities, or of broadcasting services; in controlling the production or sale of agricultural or other commodities—these, and other proposals such as these, form part of the programmes of one or other, sometimes of all three, of our political parties. They are never deliberately advocated for the purpose of restricting freedom. Opponents may allege—and may sometimes truly allege—that they would have this effect; but the accusation is always denied, and it is asserted that, in any event, whatever infringement of liberty may possibly be involved in one direction is more than outweighed by enlargement of liberty in other directions.

Dictatorships and Liberty

Such has been the position hitherto. But there have now emerged on the stage of world-politics two other schools of thought—the Communist and the Fascist. At the opposite poles in many of their economic proposals, they are at one in treating liberty as of minor account—whether political liberty or personal liberty. Economic freedom—in the sense of ensuring to each individual a secure and sufficient livelihood and adequate leisure—they both include among their declared objects. But in their view it is not a question of estimating how much liberty of one kind it is worth while sacrificing in order to obtain more liberty of another kind. In their view freedom for its own sake is of small importance. A dictatorship is in principle as good as a democracy, probably better. A man had better be put to the work which the government of the country wants him to do rather than the work which he himself prefers to do. There is no special reason why anyone should be allowed to propound in the press, on the platform, or in a Parliament any doctrine which is inconsistent with those of the Government in power. Opposition to those doctrines is to be destroyed; by the suppression of newspapers, by the prohibition of public meetings, by imprisonment without trial, if necessary by summary executions. All these methods are applied, or have been applied, in Russia, in Germany and in Italy. There is no reason to think that they would not be applied if one or other of the same schools of thought became predominant in Great Britain. Some of the pronouncements of Sir Stafford Cripps, and of the Socialist League of which he is the leader, have been taken to mean that some at least of these arbitrary methods would be adopted by a Socialist Government if a majority were obtained at a general election. This, however, is denied, and I do not desire to discuss the point here. Readers—and listeners—will form their own opinions.

No World 'Trend' Against Democracy

It is sometimes thought that movements towards dictatorship have swept irresistibly over the world in recent years, leaving Great Britain as almost the only country where representative institutions survive. There is said to be some mysterious 'trend' in world affairs which is making inevitably towards the overthrow of democracy. The facts are not so, and the doctrine of a 'trend' is merely a superstition.

Representative institutions continue unimpaired not only in Great Britain, but in all the British Dominions, and in the United States; in France, and all the highly civilised countries of north-western Europe—Sweden, Norway and Denmark, Belgium and Holland; in Switzerland, also, and Spain; and in all the more important States of South America. Several of the countries in which they have in fact been superseded are countries in which they

A Panorama of English Liberty (*for details see page* 49)

had been lately planted and had taken no firm root—such as Russia, Turkey and Japan, and some of the Balkan States. If special powers have been conceded in times of economic crisis by Parliaments to Governments—in Great Britain in 1931, in the United States in 1932, in France in 1933—that is not an overthrow of democracy, but a part of its efficient working. There has been no exercise of force in these three countries; everything was done in accordance with the constitution; there has been no suppression of freedom of the press, or of public meetings; there have been no arbitrary arrests or imprisonments. The leaders of political parties and the members of the elected legislatures themselves freely took the measures that the situation demanded. The course of events in Britain, in America and in France has not been the surrender, but the vindication of democracy.

Viewed, therefore, in their true proportions, the new facts that are significant in the modern world are presented only by Italy and Germany, together with Austria, which has now yielded to the powerful pressure upon her from the north and from the south.

There is no proof of a world-wide 'trend'. But even if there had been such a trend, that would have been no reason why the British nation should conform to it. Our history has been one of leadership in political affairs, not of docile acquiescence. Britain has been accustomed to give the example to other lands, and usually, as history has shown, to their advantage; not to accept constitutional systems from Italy or Germany, Russia or Austria. If, indeed, their present methods have merits, let us gladly consider them; if, taken as a whole, they are better than our own, let us be wise enough to adopt them. But let that be done, if at all, deliberately, consciously, as a matter of rational choice, and not in obedience to some mysterious metaphysical doctrine of 'trend' in human affairs, which nations must meekly follow, whether it be to their advantage or to their harm.

Limitations of Communism and Fascism

And when either of the anti-democratic policies is dispassionately examined on merits, it will be found to commend itself to few thoughtful minds. The Communist creed we know. We have had an object lesson of its working in Russia for a number of years. Remarkable as its achievements have been in several respects, there are not many observers who would say that, on the whole, the British nation would gain if the Russian system of politics and economics were substituted for our own. Certainly the continuous restrictions on liberty of thought and action, which are among its essential features, would be found most galling by the average Briton. Such improvements as there might be would generally be regarded as purchased at far too high a cost.

I do not desire here to enter upon an examination, which would necessarily be controversial, of the actual proposals of the British Fascist movement; but few of those who have given them careful examination are prepared to endorse them on merits and extend to them a conscientious support. One of those proposals must, however, be examined here, since it touches directly the question at issue. The British Fascists, as the Fascists elsewhere, would destroy the Parliament which is representative of all the citizens as such; they would substitute for it a 'Corporative State'—that is to say, a Legislature consisting of representatives of Corporations of the various trades and professions. That the spokesmen of manufacturers and of workmen, of teachers, of doctors and the rest, should be in close and constant contact with the governing authorities is very desirable; no doubt our political system is open to improvement in that respect. But to imagine that all the affairs now handled by the House of Commons; that such matters for example as peace, defence, disarmament, the League of Nations; or such matters as the relations with the Dominions or the right constitution for India; that domestic affairs, such as education and public health; or economic issues such as national development or international trade—to imagine that these, and a hundred other issues such as these, could properly be handled by members who have been chosen to represent bricklayers or railwaymen, cotton manufacturers or mine-owners, doctors or lawyers, engineers or musicians, and who would be expected to vote on each issue according to the interest of their particular Corporation—such a political conception has no merits at all. The Corporative State is wrong in principle from the beginning. The man is more than the work; politics is wider than economics; the State is something more than a federation of industrial interests.

There is no reason to doubt that this proposal is put forward merely as a screen; behind it free Parliaments can be destroyed, while the mind of the nation is diverted and confused by new and little-understood projects. The people, induced to think that all that is being done is to substitute for the ancient Parliament some new, up-to-date and possibly more efficient constitutional machinery, would find too late that in fact the substitute proposed is the merest sham, designed to leave the real control of all great affairs permanently in the hands of the individual or the group who had succeeded, by whatever methods, in installing themselves in power.

Is the Threat a Real One?

Is such usurpation possible in Britain? Is the threat to political liberty a real one?

It is a mistake ever to under-estimate the potentialities of any movement, and in politics surprises are always possible. But there are not discernible at present any factors that are likely to make for the success, in Great Britain, either of the Communist or of the Fascist movement.

Both of them tested public opinion at the last General Election. Both presented candidates in more than a score of constituencies; both failed to secure the return of a single member to Parliament; almost all the candidates of both groups failed to secure the votes of one in eight of the electors and 'forfeited their deposits'. Since the General Election there have been about forty by-elections; the Communist group nominated candidates in six cases, not one of whom approached within measurable distance of being returned, and most of whom polled derisory figures. The Fascist group has not ventured even to nominate a candidate in a single one of the by-elections.

The average Britisher realises the importance of liberty in the formation of character. He sees that nations are great and prosperous in proportion to the capacity of their individual citizens. Discipline and obedience may be necessary in their proper measure, but individual initiative, personal judgment, the private conscience—these in the long run matter more. So he comes to the conclusion that the State is to be regarded as a piece of machinery which exists to promote the welfare of the individual; he does not accept the Hegelian doctrine that the individual exists merely to serve some metaphysical abstraction which is named 'The State'. And I think he will adhere to that view.

Short Cuts to Disaster

While, no doubt, he would like to see his Parliament and Government alert, active, swift to get things done which ought to be done—and while he is by no means satisfied with the slowness of the present regime—he realises that that is an end which can be secured by other methods than the overthrow of the whole system. Shorts cuts are all very well, but they may be short cuts to disaster.

The probabilities are that if British Fascism pursues constitutional methods and seeks power through the parliamentary elections, the electorate will quietly and effectively dispose of it. If the movement pursues unconstitutional methods and seeks power by forcible means, it will be quietly and effectively disposed of by the police.

None of the conditions which led to its success in Italy and Germany are visible in Great Britain. There is no failure here, as there was there, to form stable parliamentary governments. There is no failure to repress, or still better to prevent, political crime and terrorism. There is no serious threat of any Communist or anarchist upheaval. Although unemployment is still widespread, formidable and tragic, there is no body of unemployed workers so vast that the community cannot cope with them, with their numbers increasing, their distresses almost unrelieved, their prospects desperate. And there is no mismanagement of the public finances resulting in repeated deficits and peril to the national currency. Those were the real causes of the political upheavals in Italy and Germany. So long as we avoid them here we need be faced by no similar upheavals. Whether we shall in fact avoid them here must depend in the long run upon the capacity and patriotism of our political leaders, and upon the intelligent interest in public affairs and the sound commonsense of the rank and file of our citizens.

Marionettes waiting for their cue
By courtesy of Signor Vittorio Podrecca

A marionette star
Photograph: Gino Biagini

In Praise of Marionettes

By FRANCIS TOYE

I DO not know whether by the time these lines are printed the marionette performances at the Fortune Theatre will still be in existence or not*. I hope so, because for sheer undiluted enjoyment allied with consummate technical and artistic merit Podrecca's 'Piccoli' are surpassed by no other entertainment in London. To tell the truth London, as compared with Paris and New York, seems to have been rather slow in taking advantage of the opportunity to become acquainted with them. Perhaps the English public is unaware of the extraordinary range and subtlety of marionette performances. Most people, I think, regard them as entertainments primarily designed for children, presumably because the only form of puppet-show still to any extent popular in England is 'Punch and Judy', an exceedingly primitive, not to say bastard, specimen of the form. It is with the hope of awakening, before it is too late, some interest in marionettes in general, and Podrecca's marionettes in particular, that this article is written.

I suppose that the puppet-theatre is about the oldest institution of scarcely unbroken tradition that exists today. Apart from Oriental puppets, Chinese, Javanese, Burmese and—most important of all in a sense—Japanese, there were puppets in Greece and Rome, some of which have actually been found. The Middle Ages patronised the puppets extensively, and they were used not only in secular but in sacred representations, such as the Nativity plays. From these mediæval puppets sprang those for which the famous traditional dramas were written: the familiar story of Dr. Faust, for instance; later the story of Don Juan; and so on. I wonder how many people know that Hans Sachs, immortalised in the 'Meistersinger', wrote puppet-plays.

The marionettes, as we know them, are in origin an Italian product. Nobody seems quite sure about the etymology of the name, but the general opinion seems to be that it is a diminutive of 'Maria', arising from the fact that images of the Virgin, with movable parts, used to be popular. At any rate, by the end of the sixteenth century the term was in common use and the marionettes themselves were firmly established in popular favour. They soon spread all over Europe, making an impression on Shakespeare and Ben Jonson. Cervantes, in one of the most felicitous incidents in *Don Quixote*, has described the disastrous effects of the marionettes on the crazy knight. At the French Court they rivalled in popularity the actors of the *Commedia dell'Arte*. The best possible tribute to the realistic impression that they conveyed is the fact that in Spain and in France several manipulators were actually accused of witchcraft!

There is, unfortunately, no space to trace the evolution of the marionettes. It would seem as if their hold on popular favour varied but little; it was the attitude of the cultured that waxed and waned. Probably the Romantic Movement may generally be described as unfavourable to that cultural appreciation of the marionettes which has been such a marked characteristic of the last thirty or forty years. Evidence of modern taste is provided by various marionette theatres in Germany, for which distinguished dramatists sometimes wrote plays, by the preference shown by Maeterlinck for puppets, the ardent advocacy of our own Gordon Craig, the successful experiments of Tony Sarg in America. One of the most famous of modern composers, Manuel de Falla, turned the very scene in *Don Quixote* already described into a highly successful opera, the action being, so to say, divided between human beings and puppets. As for the Italian marionettes, the vitality of the tradition is best shown, perhaps, by the fact that there are families who have been manipulating the puppets for nearly four hundred years; which means that such people were handling marionette

*Podrecca's 'Piccoli' will be at the Fortune Theatre until July 14

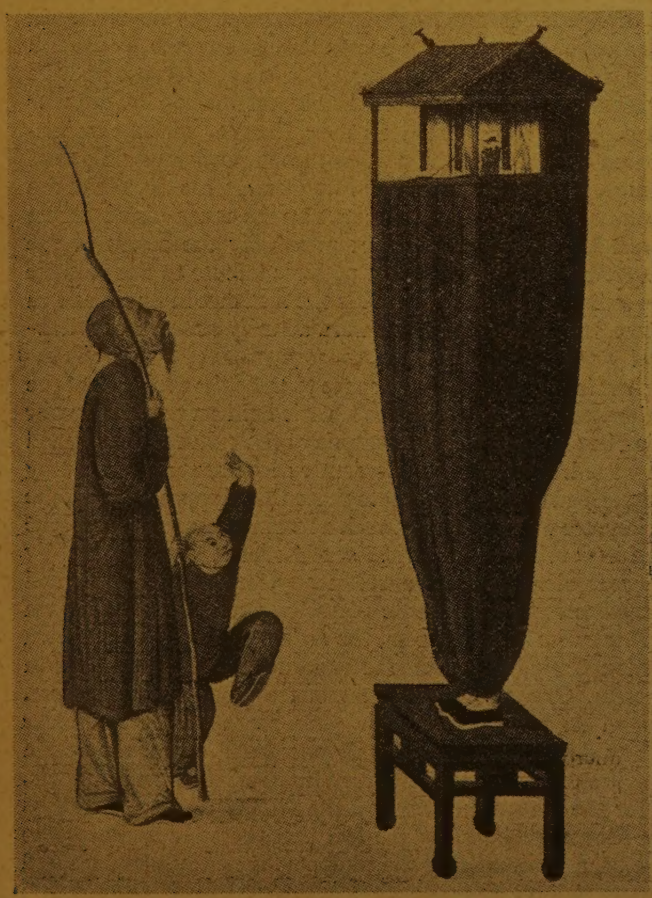
wires before Shakespeare wrote 'Hamlet'. Small wonder that families of such age-long tradition in one particular craft should develop an especial sensitiveness with regard to it!

The popularity of the marionettes in highbrow circles coincides more or less with the desire, so characteristic of modern times, to subordinate as far as possible to the creator the personality of the interpreter whether in music or drama. In this respect, of course, the marionettes provide an ideal medium. These little men and women with wires instead of nerves cannot refuse to sing because the atmosphere is smoky, cannot sacrifice an author's intentions to their own vanity or interest. Their every movement, their every gesture, is at the absolute mercy of the manipulator, who, if he be not himself the author, is at least the author's closest ally. In short, it is probable that in the case of a marionette show the author approaches nearer to the elimination of the third person, often so distressingly interposed between him and the public, than in any other dramatic form at all.

Don Quixote destroys the marionette theatre: engraving in an eighteenth-century edition of *Don Quixote*

It might be thought that the dolls could never be sufficiently human to be credible and that this shortcoming would more than outweigh their perfect discipline and submission. Curiously enough, one of the outstanding characteristics of a marionette show is its astonishing humanity. In reality, perhaps it is not curious at all. The very conventionalism and artificiality of the marionette play provide by a seeming paradox the best possible foundation for this great humanity and wide range of expression. The reason is clear and has been admirably put by Bernard Shaw in a letter written years ago to Vittorio Podrecca. 'What really affects us in the theatre is not the muscular activities of the performance, but the feelings they awaken in us by their aspect; for the imagination of the spectator plays a far greater part there than the exertions of the actors'. The conventionalisation of each marionette forces us to concentrate our attention on the whole rather than on the subordinate details, with the result that the impression is very deep.

Podrecca's 'Piccoli' do not present serious plays at all. They favour the lighter operas, Variety and so on. If I were forced to single out the one feature in which they excelled above all others it would undoubtedly be satire. Owing to the very attributes discussed above there is nothing so ruthless as the satire of a marionette. This will very soon be obvious to anyone who attends a performance of the 'Piccoli'. Nothing in real life can quite approach the intensity of the verve of the little man who swings on a rope. No Josephine Baker is quite so shameless, so suggestive as the marionette Josephine Baker. No jazz-band has ever seemed quite so sinister as the marionette jazz-band, just as no *corps de ballet* has ever been quite so ludicrously well-disciplined. Best of all is the pianist who directs the concert party. He embodies all the affectations, all



Puppet-play in the street: an eighteenth-century Chinese sketch
Victoria and Albert Museum

Italian marionettes '*à la planchette*', from an eighteenth-century etching by J. Dumont

the mannerisms, all the foibles of every pianist we have ever known. He is almost a satire on the art of music itself. He is utterly irresistible. A course of him would do more to rid music of the pose and the nonsense that too often surrounds it than all the pontifical fulminations in the world. I wish he could be kept permanently in the Queen's Hall.

Music and the marionettes have always been good allies, for music is in itself one of the most conventional of the arts. Small wonder then that opera, the most conventional form of all music, plays an important part in Podrecca's entertainment. The advantage of the alliance is obvious at once. With the puppets in charge of the stage side of the performance, the singers can devote all their energies to singing in the wings or the orchestra pit without any thought of their stage capacity or appearance. The problem of the rapid succession of scenes that has ruined so many operas holds no terrors for the marionette theatre, where any scene can be removed and a new one set up in the twinkling of an eye.

As for the technical skill shown in the handling of the 'Piccoli', I possess neither the knowledge nor the space to discuss it. It is said to be unrivalled; certainly I cannot imagine that it could be surpassed.

The Panorama of English Liberty on page 45 includes the following, reading from the top left-hand corner: Lilliburlero, Milton's *Areopagitica*, the suppression of the Star Chamber, the Dock Strike of 1888, Leech's cartoon of the Reform Bill of 1867, Hone's 'Political House that Jack Built', the Peterloo Massacre, 'The Scots holding their Young Kinges Nose to Ye Grinstone', the Death Warrant of Charles I, Street Hawker selling 'Wilkes and Liberty' broadsheet, Cap of Liberty, and Introduction of the First Woman M.P. to the House of Commons. Acknowledgments are due to Cassell and Co. for reproductions from Traill's *Social England*; to Macmillan and Co. for reproductions from Macaulay's *History of England* and Green's *Short History of the English People*; and to the proprietors of *Punch* for 'A Leap in the Dark'.

Fair booth, with Nürnberg puppets: a nineteenth-century woodcut by A. C. Richter

Illustrations on this and the opposite page from 'Dolls and Puppets' by Max von Boehn (Harrap)

Photographic Competition

THE SUBJECT for the second week of our Photographic Competition is: LIFE AND RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES (to illustrate social, economic and political questions during the last five years). Photographs entered for this subject should reach THE LISTENER office between July 9 and July 13 (inclusive), and the prize-winning photograph will be published in our issue of July 25. The rules of the competition are as follows:

1. The competition will be run from July 2 to August 31 inclusive.

2. A different subject is set for each week and entries should reach THE LISTENER office between the Monday and Friday of that week (inclusive). The prize-winning photograph in each subject group will be published on the Wednesday of the week following the closing date for that group. Entries submitted at any time other than during the week for which they are intended will not be considered.

3. A prize of Ten Guineas is offered for the best photograph in each group. The Editor reserves the right to reproduce non-prize-winning photographs at the following rates:

Whole page	Two Guineas
Half page	One-and-a-half Guineas
Minimum	One Guinea

The above sums, as also the prize money, will purchase the first British rights of reproduction in the photographs concerned.

4. Prints submitted must be not less than 6 ins. by 8 ins. and not more than 10 ins. by 12 ins. in size, and competitors are asked to send their prints unmounted.

5. Each photograph must be marked clearly on the back with the name and address of the sender, the title of the photograph and the group for which it is submitted.

6. No photograph may be entered for the competition which has previously been published elsewhere.

7. Photographic prints sent in will not be returned to the owners unless accompanied by a stamped addressed envelope of appropriate size.

8. The decision of the Editor is final, and no correspondence can be entered into with regard to his judgment.

9. Parcels or envelopes containing entries must be marked 'Listener Photographic Competition', and the Editor cannot accept responsibility for photographs lost in transit.

Subjects for future weeks	*Sending-in Dates*	*Publication of prize-winning photograph*
3. Architectural and archæological	July 16–20	Aug. 1
4. Action: human or other	„ 23–27	„ 8
5. Night photography	„ 30–Aug. 3	„ 15
6. Industry	Aug. 6–10	„ 22
7. Abstract composition in which lighting and/or arrangement of objects is the main interest	„ 13–17	„ 29
8. Scientific to include, as well as all ordinary scientific subjects, microphotography (photography of microscopic objects on a magnified scale) and *X*-ray photography.. ..	„ 20–24	Sept. 5
9. Wireless to include photographs of any aspect of this subject ..	„ 27–31	„ 12

The Listener

All communications should be addressed to the Editor of THE LISTENER, *Broadcasting House, London, W.1. The articles in* THE LISTENER *being mainly reprints of broadcast talks, original contributions are not invited. Articles in* THE LISTENER *do not necessarily represent the views of the B.B.C. Yearly Subscription rates (including postage): Home and Canada, 17s. 4d.; Overseas and Foreign, 19s. 6d. Shorter periods, pro rata.*

Publicity for Parliament

THE Pageant of Parliament at the Albert Hall has many lessons, and not least a lesson for Governments and other bodies of great dignity, that in these days no institution can afford to refrain from blowing its trumpet. Modestly, in the best possible taste, with quite mild little blasts, nevertheless a trumpet must be blown, the cry must be delivered in the jostling market-place, 'I am here, this is what I do'. Where our fathers lived quietly, and often paused to contemplate the great institutions of their country, we today are symbolised by figures in rapid movement, preoccupied and distracted amid a babel of competing sounds. Yet there was never a time in the Victorian days when Government, Parliament, the great Departments of State, took nearly so wide a view of their functions, or intervened so frequently in everybody's lives. Not only Parliament, but the new Ministries, like those of Health and Labour, have particular need to be understood by the public for whom they legislate. Government publicity in the emergency period of the War was brought to a high pitch in this country. The Post Office as a great business is showing itself as alive as any unofficial body to the importance of making its activities properly understood; and the lately deceased Empire Marketing Board was another capital instance of the combination of up-to-date publicity with official status.

The new tendency for Government to take trouble to make its intentions clearly understood is changing the old-fashioned passion for secrecy which used to mark the corridors of Whitehall. The Ministries and their permanent officials have been increasing in power and significance for half a century or more with the increasing complexity of the services which Government administers. Consequently those friends of Parliament who have both actively and successfully promoted its Pageant have to face a public which cannot be said to have at all the same awe for Parliament itself that was common in the last century. The truth is now becoming generally recognised that representative institutions in themselves do not commonly command much respect or interest. Congress in America, the Parliaments of the Dominions, the elected Chambers of European countries, have none of them ever enjoyed among their own communities any particular veneration. The English House of Commons, and still more the House of Lords, were in a particularly favoured position in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries because England was ruled by a landed aristocracy. The men who sat in one House or the other were not only the real wielders of power, they were men who shared common views on religion, on the proper structure of the State, and when they differed it was within a large framework of agreement. They had been educated together, and recognised the same quotations and tags, and admired the same classical eloquence. The debates were both spectacles and events, and the subject matter was nearly always clear and easily intelligible. Parliament beckoned the young man of parts who saw himself as a dramatic figure, swaying the votes of the assembly with his eloquence. The transition to the modern businesslike style of speaking, statistical and precise, can be traced back to the days of Huskisson, and the intrusion of insistent economics. It gained force through the century as Government became more and more the administration of a large urbanised population of very poor people living largely through the export trades. The enthusiasm which fired Mr. Gladstone's supporters was an enthusiasm which necessarily waned as the objects of struggle were achieved and were taken for granted or found to be barren. The increasingly complex organisation of the City of London made financial questions less and less suitable for platform treatment, and Members of Parliament became more and more content to leave finance and money in the hands of independent powers in the City itself. This was a natural enough development, but it inevitably led to a realisation that Parliament was not the only, and was often not the main, place in which the destinies, the livelihoods, and futures of the population were in fact decided. Another factor came into play with the development, in the last part of Queen Victoria's reign, of local government. The transfer of powers to local authorities has brought into being a whole range of administrative activity only indirectly connected with Parliament itself. It is not surprising if even in England the representative assembly has ceased to hold the centre of the stage as once it did. But there are examples enough of the defects of other forms of government to make many people feel anxious to revive the lost glories of Westminster; and a Pageant, by its sequence and long range, is as good a way as can be devised of reminding people of the great part which an elected assembly has played in their past and has still to play today.

Week by Week

'HER name will live through the years embodied in the unit of activity, in the term by which all the users of radium measure their work—the Curie', said Sir William Bragg in his broadcast on July 4, the day that Madame Curie died in a sanatorium at Sallanches. 'Many years ago she found her way from her native country, Poland, to Paris, where she sought work in the science laboratories. Beginning at the very bottom, she worked her way steadily upwards. The first researches entrusted to her related to the mechanical properties of certain steels, but it was not long before fortune led her into the ways of research which brought her opportunity and fame. The French physicist, Becquerel, had made a great discovery—that of the radiating powers of minerals containing uranium. In Professor Lippmann's laboratory she met her future husband, Pierre Curie, who was then investigating the extraordinary properties of pitchblende. The two, working together, found that this mineral, capable of emitting radiations, was a compound, and that the active substance constituted only a minute fraction of the whole. With infinite patience and great experimental skill they finally reduced the mass to its active element, and held in their hands, after working with tons of material, a few grains of the most potent substance known—radium. Hence has arisen all that great structure of

the science of radioactivity which has been one of the chief glories of modern science. She herself prepared and set aside the international radium standard which is preserved in the archives at Sèvres. Twice in her lifetime Madame Curie has been awarded, amidst the world's applause, the Nobel Prize: in 1903 she shared the Nobel Prize for Physics with her husband and Becquerel; in 1911 she was the recipient of the corresponding Prize for Chemistry. Those of us who have had the honour and pleasure of meeting her at scientific conferences and other gatherings, will remember her always as a charming lady—quiet, earnest, learned, deeply interested in all the discussions, looked up to by her colleagues. We in Britain share in the feeling of loss which runs through the whole world, and we tender our deep sympathy to the country of her adoption as well as to the country of her birth. Nor do we forget the sorrow of her family and children who so worthily maintain her tradition of devoted research'.

* * *

The state of book production and reading in Soviet Russia today is the subject of an interesting report published in last week's issue of *The Bookseller*. According to this report, which has been prepared by the Bureau of Russian Economic Research at Birmingham University, over 53,000 books were published in Russia in 1931 (the last year for which statistics have been published), as compared with 24,000 in Germany, 14,700 in Great Britain, and 10,300 in the United States. The average circulation of each book in Russia was 17,500 copies, which represents a decline from previous years due to paper shortage. Over 42 per cent. of these books were concerned with social and political subjects, nearly 29 per cent. with applied sciences, and only 9 per cent. were literary works: history, art and religion (that is, anti-religion) were represented by 2.8, 2.5 and 1.0 per cent. respectively. To show the profound difference which exists between the reading matter of Soviet Russia and that of Western Europe, the following table is given, showing the percentages of some of the individual divisions of literature for the year 1930:

	Literature	*Sociology*	*Applied Science*	*Pure Science*
U.S.S.R. ..	12	42	28	5
Germany ..	18	17	13	4
U.S.A... ..	43	6	7	5
Great Britain ..	43	9	7	4

The supply of books in Russia is comparatively much greater for the town proletariat than for the peasants. For the former an average of 1.9 copies of books per head is made available, for the latter only .5 copies. The publication of literary works, owing to small circulations and expensive editions, reaches only the upper strata of urban readers.

* * *

Vast social problems—such as unemployment, agriculture, industry—can be made interesting, comprehensible and concrete to the ordinary person in one of two ways. They can be reflected in the individual, by selecting a person or group of persons who epitomise in their make-up and career the forces of which they are a part. This is the method of such films as the Russian 'Earth' or the German 'Kameradschaft', where the abstract problems of a new social order, or of the need of international goodwill, are illustrated in the stories of certain individuals. It has also been the method of the 'Time to Spare!' series where the unemployment problem has been presented in terms of the experiences of particular persons. The other way is to symbolise the ideas themselves; and it is this way that has been chosen by Paul Rotha in his film 'Rising Tide' which was lately exhibited privately (pictures on page 55). His themes here are unemployment and the shipping industry, as illustrated in the actual recent building of the new dry-dock and berthing quay at Southampton which absorbed the labour of thousands previously out of work. The personal and human element has been cut down to a minimum; there are shots of seamen, dockers, company directors, unemployed—but they are simply seen for a second, no hint is given of their character or history, they are only important inasmuch as they are obviously factors in problems of national importance. The real characters of the film, those whose progress is observed, which the camera has followed and photographed from various angles, are inhuman—the new dock itself whose growth is traced from its beginnings in a marsh, stage by stage to its impressive completion; the steel gate from the North of England brought round by sea to close the dock; the *Europa* and the *Majestic* coming in to the new quay. Even more than in his 'Contact', which recorded the achievement of Imperial Airways, Mr. Rotha seems to have succeeded in bringing out the significance of objects, facts and figures, and thus succeeded in making a documentary film which is of artistic as well as social importance.

* * *

It is no doubt due to their unusually high standard of achievement that school dramatic entertainments have recently aroused so much interest. The Bradfield 'Agamemnon', the Rugby 'St. Joan', the Cranleigh 'King Lear', have all earned high tribute in the London press. In addition we read that Marylebone Grammar School is to tour Germany and Austria with their productions. Now there are one or two obvious reasons for the high standard and the 'professional touch' which have marked such performances. Acting is now strongly approved of as an educational factor, consequently more money is spent and more care taken to make the productions really striking. The producers, when they are not visiting professionals, are often possessed of considerable dramatic experience—Mr. Redgrave of Cranleigh, for example, who both produced the play and acted the part of Lear, was some years ago a prominent member of the Marlowe Society. Likewise the décor no longer depends upon scanty improvisations by the school carpenter. Nowadays there are few new school halls that cannot easily be turned into a theatre—Bradfield, of course, possesses an authentic reproduction of a Greek theatre. Under such circumstances the results achieved are often such as to interest a wide public. Nevertheless it would surely be a pity if the publicity which such performances bring should be thought sufficient reason for increasing the professional elements. A school play should mean a cast of schoolboy actors and not one reinforced by visitors or masters. By reviving a poetic drama which depends primarily on the beauty of the spoken word, the schools might mark off a field of dramatic entertainment entirely their own. A cast of schoolboys can bring to a work of art something naïve and fresh, which is often fully as moving as the performances of the most accomplished actors. And it is this unusual quality which they are in danger of losing by embarking upon too close an imitation of the professional stage.

* * *

Our Scottish correspondent writes: To superintendents of asylums and certified institutions under its authority the General Board of Control in Scotland has recommended that they include in the dietary of patients a larger proportion of fresh herrings than hitherto. From a less authoritative quarter comes the suggestion that fresh herrings should be imposed at least once a week upon the sailor and the soldier. It may be doubted, however, if the British appetite for this agreeable and nourishing fish will ever be large enough to absorb the huge quantities caught off our coasts. The industry depends on exports, and these, thanks to the operations of economic nationalism, have dwindled so lamentably that it looks at the moment of writing as if the Scottish fishers at least may have to lay up their boats altogether and find, if they can, something else to do. Germany used to take thousands of tons of Scots cured herring every year, but it is doubtful if any will be purchased from that quarter this year; and in the meantime, numbers of Scots coopers and packers have been hired to go abroad and show the Germans how to handle the catches of their own subsidised fleet. As a result of the trade agreement, Soviet Russia is taking a paltry 70,000 barrels this year, but the curers cannot get either from the bankers or the Government the necessary loan to allow them to complete the order. It is the last irony of the situation that many of the herrings now being caught in northern waters, while of good size, are too much lacking in flavour for immediate domestic consumption and are fit only for curing or kippering—that is, for sale in the forms for which there is virtually no demand. So fish are everywhere being dumped by the ton into the seas from which they were taken. In many a North-Eastern port owners of drifters cannot pay for the coal to take them to the distant waters to which the herrings have migrated from the coastal grounds. And the fishermen are left to let their neat cottages to summer visitors; though it may be doubted if the gradual disappearance of a hardy race of men and Scotland's increasing dependence on the tourist traffic is a wholesome trend in national economics.

In Trouble—XI

Death Penalty or Life Sentence?

A Discussion between JOHN PATON and RONALD ROSS, M.P

Mr. Paton is Secretary of the National Council for the Abolition of the Death Penalty; and Mr. Ross was a member of the 1930 Select Committee of the House of Commons to consider the abolition of the death penalty

JOHN PATON: We can agree, I think, that murder must be recognised as perhaps the most serious crime in our community, and that there is an admitted necessity for the State adequately and effectively to protect itself against the murderer. Therefore there must be no false sentiment about the murderer at all. He has got to be adequately dealt with for the crime he has committed.

RONALD ROSS: Yes, I think we can agree so far.

PATON: But no further perhaps? In my view, while murder is an abominable and repulsive crime, so also is the punishment of hanging an abominable and repulsive punishment, which carries with it certain consequences of social demoralisation and a personal degradation for those directly connected with it, which is really very serious for the community.

ROSS: I agree that the punishment of hanging is a repulsive punishment, but I should look upon it as a revolting necessity.

PATON: All right—shall we say that it is a punishment that in a civilised community like ours is tolerated only because it is believed to be for the State a complete necessity?

ROSS: That would be the main ground, but there is also this minor consideration—that one would have to be prepared in the case of certain crimes for revolt of public opinion against what public opinion would consider to be the inadequacy of the punishment. This would make it very difficult for the State to avoid inflicting the capital sentence.

PATON: But given adequate punishment as I propose, I don't think that would be likely. However, let us leave that for the moment. If the weight of fact and experience disproved the complete necessity for the death penalty, the main prop for the continuance of hanging would disappear. In this regard, we have got to consider really, I think, what is the main argument for the retention of the death penalty, and that is its supposed effect as a deterrent to murderers or potential murderers. I am not concerned at all to deny that hanging must have a certain deterrent effect—for those who think about it; but I believe that the substitute for hanging which I would propose—a life sentence as at present given to the reprieved murderer—would have an equally deterrent effect—for those who think about it.

ROSS: I should entirely disagree.

PATON: I think we ought to try to get some clear idea in our minds as to who are these murderers with whom we are dealing at this moment. Now it is, of course, admitted that murder is not usually the crime of the criminal classes. That is beyond dispute.

ROSS: In this country—where capital punishment exists—yes.

PATON: And the criminal, the so-called professional criminal, as a rule does not kill.

ROSS: Say that he is at present deterred from killing.

PATON: That's as you would put it. That means, therefore, that the overwhelming mass of murders now in Great Britain are committed by people without what is called a police record. Now in this question of who those people are, we have one very valuable bit of evidence—the very important Home Office Analysis of the murders committed over a period of twenty years in this country, which was published in 1905—an official publication. You may say that this is too old to be taken into account now, but I have been examining the records for the last five years, and the conclusions that I drew from this examination are in the main completely on all fours with the rough conclusions that one is entitled to draw from the 1905 Report. That Report showed, roughly, that less than 10 per cent. of all the murders committed over twenty years in this country were committed by people for monetary gain. The overwhelming proportion of murders were committed by people who were mostly living in the poor quarters of the densely populated areas in this country. They were committed very largely for all sorts of reasons into which hot anger and passion entered to a very large extent.

Sir John Macdonell, who was then the Master of the Supreme Court, commenting on the figures, said that in his view they pointed to the fact that in most cases murder was rather an incident in miserable lives, in which disputes, quarrels, angry words and blows are common. They were due, therefore, in the vast majority of cases to quarrels and violent rage, hot anger, jealousy and revenge, and sometimes extreme poverty and drink. Now surely when people commit a murder under those circumstances, there can be no thought of consequences, or deterrents, in their minds.

ROSS: Of course you are dealing here with those cases in which the deterrent effect of capital punishment has admittedly failed, and not with those cases, much harder to discover, where the deterrent effect of capital punishment has succeeded in protecting the lives of innocent people.

PATON: It's a pure supposition that there might be potential murderers in our midst who are deterred from murder.

ROSS: But you surely admit the possibility?

PATON: Yes, but I don't put it any higher. Now let me go on to this smaller proportion of less than 10 per cent., which admittedly commits murder from mercenary motives. As you know, this type of murderer, generally called the cold, calculating murderer, of whom the poisoner is the best example, is usually full of confidence, and of conceit in his own powers. His planning all turns on the idea that he is clever enough to escape detection. This is an almost universal characteristic of the type of murderer I am now discussing. It is obvious that no punishment could have a deterrent effect on a man who does not propose to be punished. And so it seems to me that to talk of the deterrent effect of hanging in either of these two sections—the great mass which commits its acts under circumstances in which it does not think about deterrents; and the smaller proportion which commits its acts under circumstances which it thinks give it protection against ever being found out—is to talk nonsense.

Now, another point. The failure of the case for the *necessity* of capital punishment is demonstrated quite conclusively by the extremely weighty experience of the something like thirty States throughout the world which have abandoned this punishment. These States are very dissimilar. For instance, they are as different as Belgium is from Norway, or Portugal from Rumania, but in all these States the evidence that was given to the Select Committee when the Enquiry was being held was completely conclusive—that since they had abandoned capital punishment there was, in their experience, neither demand nor need for any re-imposition of the penalty.

ROSS: Of course you must not forget the many States which have abandoned capital punishment and have felt it desirable to come back to that punishment.

PATON: I may remind you that in Germany, just as in Austria and Italy, the general re-imposition of capital punishment in recent times has not been due to any increase in crime, but due in fact to political considerations arising from changes in forms of government which don't affect our question at all.

ROSS: I should have thought that it was fairer to have said that the responsible government of these countries was convinced that capital punishment was essential after some experience of its abeyance.

PATON: Let me remind you of what Dr. Dingli, the representative of the Italian Government, said, when he appeared before the Select Committee. The gist of it was that capital punishment was re-imposed for certain political offences. It was felt by the Italian officials that it was inconsistent and illogical to have capital punishment for political offences and not to have it for criminal offences.

ROSS: Don't forget that every country is notoriously reluctant to admit any increase in crime. But at all events you would agree with me that it is not only the right but the duty of the State to protect Society and the lives of its innocent citizens?

PATON: Yes.

ROSS: And if the threat of execution of potential murderers saves lives, then it is not only legitimate but a moral policy. Now as to the foreign instances which you have given, I think that one has to treat both statistics and the experience of other countries with caution.

PATON: I agree, but when I cited foreign countries I did not quote statistics. What I did in fact was to refer you to the extremely weighty evidence given by responsible prison officials from those countries, either in person or by means of memoranda before the Select Committee, which stated the completely unanimous view that the abolition of capital punishment in those countries had been justified by experience.

ROSS: Don't forget that the only foreign witnesses that were called up before that Committee—with the one exception, I think, of Judge Kavenagh—were from the countries which had abolished capital punishment; and that no foreign evidence was called from those countries—and they are much the larger number—which had retained it.

PATON: Yes, of course. For those countries which retained the death penalty, any impressions they may have as to the effect of its abolition in their own countries must necessarily be matters of opinion only, since they have no experience of abolition. But in the case of those who have abolished it, we are dealing with questions of actual fact from experience gained.

ROSS: What punishment can have a greater deterrent effect than capital punishment? I certainly cannot see that any other punishment could equal it.

PATON: I'm only arguing that other penalties, which have not the horrible associations of hanging, are equally effective.

ROSS: Now as you know, in the Enquiry of 1930 the Select Committee, of which I was a member, took the evidence of a large number of witnesses. The vast majority of British witnesses, including ex-Home Secretaries, judges of great criminal experience, lawyers—both barristers and solicitors—prison governors of great experience, warders of prisons, and prison commissioners, were all in favour of the retention of capital punishment.

PATON: But of course one would expect prison officials in this country to be opposed to necessary reforms. In my opinion the history of penal reform over the last hundred years shows that practically every reform was bitterly opposed by the officials and judges.

ROSS: I don't think that that is quite fair to our present prison officials; and further, do you consider that Home Secretaries, who have the terrible task of deciding whether a man is to suffer death or not, would be inclined to the retention of this punishment, which puts such a very heavy burden on them? As far as I remember about the only British witnesses who were in favour of abolition were clergymen—and they were not unanimous—and those members of Societies who have devoted themselves to their sincere and convinced belief that capital punishment is not necessary. There was also a distinguished peer, Lord Buckmaster; and alone, I think, of Home Secretaries, Sir Herbert Samuel, who admitted in his evidence that if it was an effective deterrent it would be a legitimate punishment. There was also, I think, one medical officer.

Now as to its deterrent effect, I should like to quote actual cases as far as I can in support of the opinion I have formed. In Glasgow in 1904 there was a case of a man called Thomas Gunning who was tried by Lord Trayner for the murder of a man against whom he had a grudge. Gunning went into this man's office and shot him dead with a pistol. In the course of the trial it transpired that he had met an acquaintance to whom he revealed the fact of his crime, and that man was shocked and said to him, 'Don't you know that that is a hanging matter?' To which the man replied, 'Oh, they don't hang people nowadays. It will be at the most fifteen years' penal servitude'. He said that because in the preceding ten years only three people who had been convicted of murder were in fact executed in Scotland. Gunning was wrong, but it shows the state of his mind when he committed this crime. In the United States, where some States have abolished capital punishment and others have retained it, there are cases from time to time of husbands who, wishing to get rid of their wives, take them from States where they might be executed for murder, to States where that is not the law. There is the well-known case of Sawtelle, and Judge Kavenagh of Chicago, in the course of his evidence before the Select Committee, gave two other cases of which he knew. One was in Detroit, where a Pole had brought his wife from Pittsburgh and admitted that he had taken her to Detroit to murder her because there was no capital punishment there. The other case was where a man had taken his wife from Iowa and brought her to Wisconsin and killed her there.

PATON: You know, of course, that hard cases make bad law. Judge Kavenagh, whose evidence you quote, came from the City of Chicago, notorious for its lawlessness, where capital punishment is in existence and always has been. You don't quote Governor Lawes, who was for so long in control of Sing Sing Prison, and who has recently, after a very deliberate examination of all the facts, come down in favour of abolition. His memorandum was very important because of his wide experience.

ROSS: I don't quote Governor Lawes because we had no chance of examining him. But let me mention another case which came within Judge Kavenagh's own experience, that of a person who was being tried for murder and who announced before his trial that he preferred death to imprisonment. The Judge in his charge emphasised the awful consequences of a life sentence—how the prisoner would lose his identity, that he would never hear laughter again, and many other of the dreadful incidents connected with a long term of imprisonment. Nevertheless, the prisoner, when the judge gave him the opportunity of selecting the punishment he preferred, chose a life imprisonment.

PATON: To talk about the dreadful sufferings of the life sentence has always seemed to me to be a very bad argument. I don't put forward the life sentence as the ideal alternative, but as the immediately practical one. I am a strong supporter of penal reform generally, as well as of abolition.

ROSS: In your argument on the question of the deterrent effect of capital punishment, you're only dealing with those cases where the deterrent effect of the punishment has not been effective. You don't consider those cases in which it has succeeded in preserving the lives of innocent people. John Stuart Mill, when he was discussing the question of capital punishment, said, 'We partly know who those are whom the death penalty has not deterred, but who is there who knows whom it has deterred, or how many human beings it has saved who would have lived to be murderers if that awful association had not been thrown round the idea of murder from their earliest infancy?' Now, it is a remarkable fact that two-thirds of those sentenced to death for murder in this country were guilty of killing adult women, and it is my belief that but for capital punishment this would be a much more frequent crime than it is at present. In 1927 over 1,400 wives were obliged to seek the protection of the Courts on grounds of assault or persistent cruelty by their husbands, but during that year only five men were sentenced to death for the murder of their wives or the women with whom they were living. I shudder to think what the number would have been had this deterrent not existed.

PATON: That, of course, is conceivable, but remember it is only a *belief*; and frankly I find it impossible to believe that there is any large number of potential murderers in Great Britain who are definitely deterred from committing this crime because of the fact that they know if they are found out they will be hanged.

ROSS: But is not your opinion that a life sentence is an equal deterrent, just a belief?

PATON: Not altogether. The analysis provided by the Home Office, my own searchings of records over five years, showed that in over 90 per cent. of cases, crimes were committed under such circumstances that the question of deterrence does not enter. My point that a life sentence is equally good on this question of deterrence is not merely a belief, because we have got a very large and very important body of evidence from thirty States throughout the world, which shows what have been actually their experiences since they have abolished it.

ROSS: As you have agreed, a murder by a professional criminal or by one of the criminal classes is, I should say, a very rare offence in this country. I remember an interesting piece of evidence by a warder at Pentonville Prison who described how, when taking a batch of convicts to Dartmoor, he had heard them discussing the question of murder when they were in the act of committing a crime. Most of them were of the opinion that they would never carry arms, because the least accident meant 'topping', which is what they called hanging. And the witness said that he had heard that more than once.

PATON: But other criminals admitted, to the Howard League for Penal Reform which put the point to them, precisely different conclusions.

ROSS: The professional criminals who were interviewed by the Howard League might have desired to say what the Howard League would like to hear them say.

PATON: But the same sort of thing applies to evidence given to officials. I know the tendency of the criminal to boast.

ROSS: The story I told was overheard, and it was no boast.

PATON: Let me give you a point. There was the case recently of Rowland Hill, who shot at and hit a constable in the South of England. Probably he did not realise that he was only

wounded. There was a tremendous police hunt, and he finally committed suicide. Now the extraordinary thing about that case was this: while that criminal was actually in Wandsworth Gaol before his release, two men were lying in the condemned cell under sentence of death, so that there must have been most definitely and clearly established in his mind, without possibility of his forgetting it, that if he shot the constable he was likely to be hanged for it. In that case most obviously the death penalty absolutely failed to deter.

ROSS: He may not have intended to shoot to kill.

PATON: I think we can only assume by his act of suicide at the end that he probably had that in mind and believed he had done it.

ROSS: One can't tell. A very experienced Prison Governor has put the matter in this way: 'The man who today takes to crime does so with his eyes open as to the risks incurred, and calculates carefully and methodically how to minimise or evade those risks. His motives are frankly lawless. He means to live at other people's expense and to go on living at other people's expense. To this end every modern invention that can be made applicable is applied—motor-cars, acetylene, anæsthetics, electrical appliances, explosives, are all pressed into the nefarious service, but a revolver or lethal weapon rarely; and if such item does form part of the criminal outfit it is usually hurled away, hidden, or not used when arrest is imminent. Why? Not for any consideration for his fellow-men, but out of respect for the criminal's own neck'.

One must consider, too, the position of warders, who would have charge of those who had been convicted of murder, if those prisoners knew that they could never suffer a more serious punishment than that they were already undergoing. Many of the witnesses who were connected with the prison services expressed apprehension as to the situation they would find themselves in if this were so, and of course in America where it exists there have been some terrible cases, such as that of Gypsy Frank in Michigan, who killed his guards and escaped, and then killed two policemen who tried to arrest him, and is now again back in prison.

PATON: When this point was put to Sir John Anderson in cross-examination at the Enquiry, he said quite frankly that he did not think that the administrative difficulties were insuperable. Sir John was then Permanent Under-Secretary of State for the Home Office.

ROSS: That may be, but undoubtedly there must be additional difficulties in prison administration. But, of course, the situation is difficult to forecast with certainty. For all the reasons which I have mentioned I am convinced that this punishment, repulsive though it may be, is necessary for the protection of Society. But it must not be applied recklessly. We have in this country paid the greatest attention to avoiding possible miscarriages of justice. We know the various hearings which must take place—before the magistrate, then the trial at the Assizes, the trial at which the plea of 'Guilty' is never accepted, then the Court of Criminal Appeal, and finally the right to reprieve which is exercised on the recommendation of the Home Secretary, which in fact, if not in theory, has amounted really to the grading of this crime.

PATON: I whole-heartedly agree with you that our judicial system is probably an example to the world in the magnificent efficiency with which it carries out its duties, but when you cite the number of trials that a murderer has to undergo I think you forget that, for instance, the very full evidence and sometimes an adverse verdict at the Coroner's inquest, when it now takes place (it does not always), may be gravely prejudicial to the prisoner rather than to his advantage.

ROSS: I should have thought that on balance it was in his favour, because he sees exactly what case he has to meet, and he need not then disclose his defence.

PATON: What you really are, I think, saying, is that the only Court of Justice in this country which never makes mistakes is the Court of Justice in which a murderer is tried, because of course, as you know, our Courts are often fallible, with all their efficiency. Our appeals prove how often wrong judgments are made. We have some glaring instances in our criminal administration of wrong conviction. And it is an important objection to capital punishment that errors of justice, errors of conviction, have consequences which are quite irrevocable. The victim is hanged.

Let me sum up my case. First, an examination of the available records demonstrates completely that capital punishment does not prevent murder, and second, the experience of nearly thirty States throughout the world, shows unanimously and conclusively that the death penalty is *not* necessary for the maintenance of social order and security.

ROSS: In conclusion I should just like to say this last word on the question of the substitution of the life sentence for capital punishment. I want to quote the opinion of a Prison Commissioner of very great experience, who has unrivalled knowledge of prison affairs in this country and has studied the type of life imprisonment which those countries who employ it as a substitute for the death penalty have thought best to use. He said he would prefer the death sentence on grounds of humanity to any alternative any country has tried.

PATON: You know, I expect, on the other hand, that the experienced administrators in many of those same countries make an extremely strong indictment against what they call the brutality of our English system?

ROSS: That may be, but it is a witness of, to my mind, very great weight, and he goes so far as to say this: 'Personally, for a friend or a brother of mine, I would choose capital punishment rather than a sentence of twenty years'. And that I think shows that even on grounds of humanity there is something to be said for the retention of the law as it exists at present.

PATON: You realise, don't you, if that is so, what you are doing in sending a reprieved prisoner to penal servitude—presumably because there are extenuating circumstances in the case? You are actually giving him what you believe to be worse punishment than if you hanged him?

ROSS: But the quality of our punishment for convicted prisoners is nothing like the quality of the punishment in Belgium, where they find it necessary to have that type of imprisonment as a substitute for capital punishment.

PATON: If that is so it disproves your previous argument, surely. We come to the point where we must agree to differ, but I think I ought to say this—that time is on my side, and that probably sooner or later I shall be able to say to you that this talk today in retrospect shows pretty clearly how short-sighted people can be to the actual realities under their noses.

ROSS: I certainly should rejoice to think that I would live to see a Utopia in which this punishment would not be necessary.

PATON: That desirable state is much nearer than you realise.

Films Worth Seeing

In his concluding talk, on June 20, Mr. Oliver Baldwin mentioned the following films:

BY CANDLELIGHT (American)—'a light story of a wealthy young man and his valet who falls in love with the lady's maid of a countess. Both the valet and the maid pretend to be what they aren't, and it is all very charming and innocent and old-fashioned. Paul Lukas as the valet gives an excellent performance, but Elissa Landi as the lady's maid is like an iceberg. The treatment is thin and the end obvious: those who like a quiet and moral picture, however, will find "By Candlelight" to their liking. The photography is very good and the lighting excellent'.

FUGITIVE LOVERS (American)—'I have no hesitation in recommending this film to all cinema lovers. Robert Montgomery plays an escaped convict who boards a motor-coach full of people and finds himself next to Madge Evans, who is trying to avoid the attention of a gangster (Nat Pendleton). The different types in the 'bus are delightfully played—Ted Healy being especially good. The way in which the comedy and drama are mingled in this picture is worthy of the highest praise, and your attention is held the whole way through'.

In reply to many requests, Mr. Baldwin then gave a list of some of the Walt Disney Silly Symphonies:

FLOWERS AND TREES—'in which a tall and stately tree is courted by a gnarled oak, and rescued from his unwelcome attentions by the combined action of birds and flowers'.

KING NEPTUNE—'in which the monarch sits at the bottom of the sea and plays fast and loose with sailing ships'.

SANTA'S WORKSHOP—'showing how Father Christmas makes his toys with the help of an army of gnomes'.

FATHER NOAH'S ARK—'showing how, at the time of the Flood, the snakes acted as a crane, the monkeys used their tails as painting brushes, and a host of other delightful happenings'.

THE THREE LITTLE PIGS—'most popular of all, probably because of the song that comes into it, "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf"'.

THE PIED PIPER—'which has good music and is chiefly remarkable for its wonderful detail'.

LULLABY LAND—'the adventures of a baby in a strange country of toys that must not be played with. This is my favourite, and you must see it if you don't see any of the others'.

'Rising Tide'

Two stills from Mr. Paul Rotha's new documentary film (see note on page 51) showing the H.M. King George V Graving Dock at Southampton in course of construction, and a liner berthed in it

The American Housing Corporation

By SIR RAYMOND UNWIN

In his concluding article Sir Raymond deals with an important part of President Roosevelt's New Deal about which not much has hitherto been heard over here

ON the day when President Roosevelt took up his office he was faced with a complete financial collapse, brought about by causes some of which have been described in a previous article. He found a vast army of unemployed for whose maintenance no regular system existed, and a volume of internal indebtedness so great, that doubt has been expressed whether all the available assets as then realisable would have shown a balance. The debt situation was most acute in reference to the farmers, for one reason because there the division between creditors and debtors coincided with a traditional difference of interest between the urban and rural communities.

The prices of all goods and the values of all assets had slumped to such an extent that, assessed in goods, the debts represented nearly double the burden which had originally been assumed. A farmer who had borrowed a dollar when he could have paid it back with a bushel of wheat or less, found that he was called on to pay the dollar when he could only do so with two or more bushels. This applied more or less all through. What, then, could the President do? Wholesale bankruptcy, complete disorganisation, and perhaps worse, promised to result from inaction. There were three possible courses to ease the debt situation. Creditors might be asked, or compelled, to write down the money value of each debt to approximately the worth in materials prevailing when it was incurred, a course involving millions of very difficult adjustments. Prices might be raised to such an extent as to restore the relation between the bushel and the dollar, for example, to that which would represent on an average the relation prevailing when the debts were incurred. Raising prices, however, is a difficult and slow process; and if it were to precede, instead of follow, a restoration of employment, would cause increased suffering to those least able to face it. The third alternative was to scale down the value of the dollar in gold, and so probably in goods also.

Typical American city slums

Brown Brothers *Ewing Galloway*

The President was also faced with very conflicting advice from economists. Probably this does not reflect on the ability of American economists, but merely indicates that the chief factors in the situation, being human, were not capable of exact scientific analysis. After all, credit, on which so much depends, is largely in the nature of a confidence trick. With confidence almost any system will work; but without confidence hardly any system can be made to function. The President chose the most promising of the possible alternatives and depreciated the dollar, thus restoring more nearly the relation between it and the bushel of wheat or other goods on which the original credits had been based, and debts incurred. If other countries, including our own, had better understood the position, there would have been less tendency for writers in newspapers to comment as though the President sought some advantage over them in foreign trade. At that time the foreign trade question was negligible, compared with the urgency of easing the internal debt situation. Moreover, the fact should not have been overlooked, that all foreign debts to America payable in dollars were in effect scaled down with the home debts. That the President's policy has eased the situation especially for the farmers can hardly be doubted. His action has, moreover, restored confidence to a remarkable degree; perhaps not the less because he has frankly recognised that it must be experimental, seeing that he is breaking new ground.

The general policy of the President will not be understood unless the fact is appreciated that he aims not merely at relieving the present slump, but at a long-date reconstruction which will render such booms and slumps unlikely to recur. The New Deal means much more than a political slogan for recovery; it means no less than the attempt to substitute a planned order for one based on extreme individualism and the haphazard averaging of competitive efforts. To understand how it is that opinion on such matters can have changed so much in America, it is necessary to realise how near to the breakdown their industrial order came. Few who realised the position would lightly face as near an approach again.

It is probably not unfair to say now that for each thought given to immediate recovery two thoughts are being given to the more permanent application of planning to the industrial and economic order. The way towards planning, which has been entered on here almost inadvertently, those taking the longest steps sometimes seeming to realise least whither they were leading—that way is being taken by the American administration consciously and with intention to pursue it. Some form of maintenance in unemployment, probably also for old age, is likely; already the codes have introduced a degree of regulation into all the main industries, exceeding anything yet experienced here. Mr. Wallace, the Secretary for Agriculture, has been explaining very frankly to the American people that they cannot sell unless they are prepared to buy; cannot export unless they are willing to import, not only to a like amount, but to a larger amount which will include a sufficient margin for the payment of all foreign debts which they wish to collect. He has explained that if the people wish to follow an exclusive nationalism and have a self-contained country, they must face the putting of 50,000,000 acres out of cultivation; even with a reasonable proportion between industrial and farming exports, probably 25,000,000 acres may need in this way to lapse from agricultural use. This must in any case

Lay-out of Radburn, a new satellite town of New York

involve very large movements of population, calling for planning on a large scale. Already in New York state lands of inferior quality have been going out of cultivation at the rate of 100,000 acres per year. A careful survey of all the land in that state is being made, parcel by parcel, and it is being mapped according to quality in three main divisions: (1) land worth cultivating, with several sub-divisions, (2) land good for re-afforestation, (3) rough land not worth the cost of planting, to be allowed to go wild, and serve for sport or holiday rambling. Similar surveys are being undertaken in other states and the lands of the whole country will then be assessed and mapped. Farmers are by nature individualists, and the task of planning their industry for their own benefit will be no easy one. They have, however, had experiences recently which have forced them to do some thinking. They are at least prepared to doubt the value of individualism in the handling of their produce when it leaves their hands.

The solution of these large problems Mr. Wallace, the Secretary for Agriculture, and those working with him, are attempting to find, through the better planning of the industry as a whole. In that planning we are interested as one of the largest customers and one having an agriculture of our own to plan. Canada is even more keenly interested, and is watching from just across that frontier of a thousand miles or more, which alone divides the two farming belts. The conditions seem to call for co-operation; for planning is an activity which must spread; there can be no stable margin between a planned area and one unplanned.

There seems little doubt that the people as a whole are overwhelmingly behind their President in his efforts. The greatest difficulty which looms up at present concerns the relations of employer and employed. They have been so used to think in terms of struggle—who should get the larger share of the industrial booty—that the change to a planned and regulated relation, directed to save the said booty from complete destruction, and then to foster its steady increase, will demand a change of attitude and an appreciation of the value of co-operation for which there has been little in the past to prepare the minds of either party. However, the great degree of dependence on the home markets in America has fostered among employers a much wider appreciation of the value of high wages in creating purchasers for their goods, than is to be found at home, where hitherto foreign trade has been so much more looked to as the main outlet. The growth of the habit of regarding the workers

Wooden houses in the garden city at Radburn

By courtesy of the Radburn City Housing Corporation

as their most numerous customers, should clearly make co-operation under the codes more easy.

The change of general outlook in America due to the slump, and the growing emphasis on long-date features in the New Deal, rather than on immediate measures for recovery, are both illustrated in their housing movement. Started at first as one means of finding prompt employment for building operatives, who have had no activity in speculative house building to compensate for the complete cesssation of other work, slum clearance and housing have become settled items in the long-date programme. Hitherto such work has been regarded as entirely within the sphere which should be left to private enterprise or voluntary effort. Only one or two States had any legislation to give power for such activities, and only a few local authorities had adopted them where available. Now the Federal Government have taken the matter up; have set aside large funds to stimulate and assist housing work; have created a well-staffed department under Mr. Ickes, Secretary for the Interior, with Mr. R. D. Kohn, recently President of the American Institute of Architects, as Director; and they are doing their best to secure legislation in the State Parliaments to give the needful powers for municipalities to undertake slum clearance and housing. Some schemes the Federal Government is undertaking directly; and for this purpose a National Housing Corporation has been formed with Secretary Ickes, Miss Perkins, the Secretary for Labour, and Mr. Kohn, as the Directors. This Corporation, though backed and financed by the Federal Government, can enjoy all the freedom which private enterprise possesses, and thus evade constitutional difficulties which lurk in the relations between Municipal, State and Federal spheres of action. In the main, however, Federal action will be confined to stimulating and aiding local activity. For example, 25,000,000 dollars has been allocated to assist the work in New York City. A housing bill has been passed by the N.Y. State parliament, and a Housing Board for the City has been created under it, by the energetic Mayor La Guardia. The entrusting of such special work as planning and housing to Boards enjoying considerable continuity and responsibility for details, seems to be the normal procedure, and it has decided advantages. The New York act empowers cities to constitute a Housing Authority, to consist of five members appointed by the Mayor of the City. They are first appointed to serve from one to five years, one retiring each year; and thereafter all are elected for five years to secure continuity of policy. The Authority is constituted 'a body corporate and politic'; it is given powers to acquire, hold, sell, build or repair housing property. It may exercise the powers of eminent domain, or compulsory purchase; it is financed by the City Council, to whom it must present its schemes with estimates for approval. The law says that if the Council find the scheme satisfactory they shall approve it, and thereupon the Authority shall proceed to carry out the scheme. In any proceedings to determine the price at which property is to be acquired, the value at which it has been assessed for taxation during the last three years must be produced; and compensation is not to be increased by means of any increase in value, caused by the reconstruction, or proposed reconstruction, of the area covered by the scheme. The names on the Board appointed for New York City are all of persons known for their interest in housing or their experience of it. To have secured prompt work for the unemployed, the President would have been obliged to undertake the building of low-cost houses on vacant land. The real estate people, however, were much concerned lest such action should further depreciate the value of house property. Owing to the degree to which people of all classes had been compelled by the need for economy to 'double up'—two or more families in one house—and the consequent number of empty houses, the case made by the 'realtors', was more convincing than it would otherwise have been. To the disappointment of many housing reformers the President so far met their views as to concentrate efforts on slum clearance and rebuilding, a course which at once transformed housing from a means of early relief to unemployment, into a part of the long-date programme of reconstruction.

Improvement of financial conditions leading to the separation of the doubled-up families will, however, almost certainly reveal a great shortage of dwellings, partly due to the cessation of building and partly to the same multiplication of families more rapidly than individuals, which has caused such a great demand for extra dwellings at home. In America, while the population increased 16 per cent. in the last decade, the number of families increased 23 per cent., owing to the reduced average size. On the American population of over 120 millions this represents an unexpected increase of 1,400,000 families, and a demand for something approaching that number of extra dwellings. The increase in population seems to be slackening rapidly; and one statistician in the Department of Agriculture estimates that the peak of numbers will be reached as soon as 1950, and that thereafter the numbers will fall. If anything like this forecast proves true, America will be faced with a very unexpected demand for dwellings due to the increased number of families into which each thousand of the population will be divided. The 'realtors' are in fact likely to be kept busy building houses for those who can afford to buy, and need not fear injury from anything in the way of low-cost housing undertaken by the National or local Housing Boards.

A housing scheme of garden apartments at Chicago, built to rent to Negroes

Another interesting example of the new activities undertaken by the Federal Government is afforded by the Subsistence Homesteads Division of Mr. Ickes' Department of the Interior, which has been constituted with Mr. M. L. Wilson as director, and an able staff 'to help in the redistribution of the overbalance of population in the industrial centres'. A sum of 25,000,000 dollars as a revolving loan fund has been allocated for this purpose. This 'is not an emergency relief agency, but an organisation to aid long-term economic readjustment'. The homesteads will mostly 'consist of small plots of land on which people employed in industries, trades or other occupations may own their homes and raise a portion of their food to supplement their cash incomes. Food grown on these plots is intended for home consumption, not for the market'. Applications for loans for this purpose aggregated 4,000,000,000 dollars, the Department has therefore been obliged to confine its attention to the establishment of a few selected demonstration projects throughout the country. One scheme is being carried out in New Jersey, a State adjacent to New York City. This project is 'a demonstration in decentralised industry and subsistence farming involving needle workers in the clothing trades'. Homesteads are to be provided for 200 families. Towards the cost a loan of 500,000 dollars is being made by the Federal Department.

Another interesting piece of national planning is afforded by the Tennessee Valley scheme for which a special Authority or Board has been created. To save that and the Mississippi valley from floods, immense dams are to be constructed which can impound the surplus water in flood seasons and liberate it gradually when the dry time supervenes, using the head of water thus secured to provide cheap electrical power on a large scale. Complete towns for the workers who will build the dams, and for the employees who may be expected to succeed them to work in the factories which the cheap power will attract, are being planned and built. The development will be largely on the homestead principle, combining industrial work with some food-growing for home use. The President and Mrs. Roosevelt are known to take much personal interest in these schemes; and the trial in America of such experiments in Governmental planning and activity is very significant of the state of open mind as to the future now prevailing.

A New Stage in Unemployment Relief

By RONALD C. DAVISON

Broadcast on July 5, the day on which for the first time many thousands of the unemployed drew their benefits at the improved rates laid down in the new Unemployment Act

IT so happens that the birthday of this Act coincides almost exactly with the twenty-second anniversary of the world's first national scheme of compulsory insurance against unemployment. That was in 1912, when we had a Liberal Government. Mr. Churchill and other Ministers had been persuaded, chiefly by two experts (William Beveridge and Llewellyn Smith, as they then were) to try the small but fateful experiment of insuring all the workers in seven selected trades. The idea was not popular at first, neither with trade unionists nor with anybody else. In those days no one doubted that the ordinary artisan could and did make some provision for temporary out-of-work spells, either by saving or by trade union insurance. And as for the unthrifty, nearly everybody agreed that to dispense relief on easy terms to able-bodied workers would be the road to ruin. It was not merely a question of applying a needs test; for such men there should be no home relief at all. In Scotland it was actually illegal, and in England was only allowed as an exception to the rule. The rule of the Poor Law was to offer the workhouse or the labour colony. So you can imagine what a revolution it seemed for the State to launch out on an insurance scheme which granted the unemployed citizen a right to a compensatory payment without any unpleasant conditions attached. In 1912 it was by no means on the insufficiency of the benefits that anxieties centred; it was on the manifold difficulties of enforcement. Could so novel a scheme be administered? That was the crux for the Government. And would it damage trade union interests? That was what bothered organised labour.

That pioneer scheme which started twenty-two years ago seems very small beer to us now. It only gave benefits of 7s. for fifteen weeks and there were no dependent's allowances at all. Today average benefit payments are at least three times higher, and they may continue more than three times as long. We must remember, too, that, outside insurance, there is a new non-Poor-Law system of State allowances, and that both these State schemes are associated with many other new services for workers and their families. Finally, voluntary effort has vastly increased as compared with 1912.

Some 13,000,000 persons are now compulsorily insured for unemployment. (In 1912, there were 2,250,000.) Insurance status is eagerly sought after. And as for benefit, from July 1 the Act raises the rate for an unemployed man with a wife but no children, from 23s. 3d. to 26s. a week. Over a period of six months he can now draw £34 in all and no questions asked. If the wife is also insured and unemployed they can have 32s. a week between them. All this will make a very real difference to thousands of wageless families to whom 6d. one way or the other in the family budget is a large item. Moreover it is one of the concessions of the new Act that workers who have had fairly steady 'contributory' work for five years prior to their claims can draw these maximum benefits as a right for fifty-two weeks. In my opinion it is doubtful if State Insurance can afford to give much better cover than that, at any rate until we enjoy a higher level of wages than exists today. Under the new benefit scale, where children's allowances, at 2s. each, are added to the parent's benefit, the total benefit to be drawn as a right by fathers of families will now rise above the earnings of agricultural labourers in full work, and above the earnings of a good many industrial workers, too. These are hard facts. They may cramp our ideals, but they cannot well be ignored today, any more than they were in 1912.

But the real trouble about insurance is that it cannot nowadays cover the whole problem. As you know, insurance depends on contributions, and a lot of people have not got enough stamps to qualify for benefit. Another section have exhausted their twenty-six weeks' standard benefit. Of course the extension to a fifty-two weeks' run will widen the insurance cover, but, all the same, for one reason or another, there will still be over 850,000 unemployed (chiefly in the North and in South Wales) who have to be provided for outside insurance.

At present these less fortunate ones get what is called transitional payment, or, in fewer cases, Poor Law Relief, both of which kinds of help depend principally on a test of need applied by local Public Assistance Committees. That, of course, does not necessarily mean that they get less than men and women on benefit. Many of them get just the same, and from this week no doubt most of them will be getting more money in keeping with the higher benefit rates. But all this is temporary. In a few months there is to be a brand new State Relief system, quite apart from Insurance, and administered by a central Board whose detailed operations are intended to be outside politics. This new Board is going to be quite an important institution. It will take over some duties from the Poor Law and some from the Ministry of Labour. Its services will have to be available locally to all wage-earners, including rural workers, in every part of Great Britain. With one exception (the Employment Exchanges) there has been no such new national service undertaken by the State for at least two centuries.

In future the moment they leave school and get a job in trade or industry, young people between fourteen and eighteen will become insurable, and will thus, in some degree, come under the eye of the Juvenile Employment Committees attached to the Employment Exchanges. In itself, juvenile insurance will not amount to much, either in contributions, which will be 2d., or benefits, which will be 2s., the latter being payable to parents only, and only if the parent is himself unemployed. The real project that is behind all this is that in future 'to be unemployed' shall no longer mean 'to be unoccupied' and lost sight of. They are to go to a special type of school called Junior Instruction Centres. This part of the Act will no doubt take a lot of enforcing. That is why the Minister of Labour is assuming still another new power, the power to compel employers to notify the Exchanges of all those discharged under eighteen.

There are all sorts of other ways, in which national efforts are being made and money spent. There are the Employment Exchanges, and there are the Ministry of Labour's training schemes, which are really rather marvellous, and of which, I am convinced, we shall hear a great deal more in times to come. Altogether the bill paid by this country, one way and another, for unemployment amounted last year to just under £116 millions, and, as you see, the provision is now to be made more generous under the new Act. Fortunately for the Chancellor of the Exchequer and for all of us, employment is steadily improving, and we can foot the bill. But either 'by luck or cunning' we must learn to do better yet in the way of employment. Meanwhile I can assure you that the vast scale of our operations would have been very astonishing—even shocking—to our reformers of 1912, but they lived in the happy far-off days when unemployment even in bad years was never half as bad as it is now.

From Tolpuddle to T.U.C.—XII

The Future of Trade Unionism

By WALTER M. CITRINE

Mr. Citrine is General Secretary of the Trades Union Congress

I KNOW that some people have the idea that so long as Trade Unions exist, the future must be one of strife, with employers and workers each skulking in their separate wigwams, and sworn to scalp the other. Let me try to dispose of that at once. Trade Unionists find no particular joy in throwing up their jobs, and losing wages which they badly need, for the mere sake of having a row with the employers. I don't want to waste time wrangling over the rights and wrongs of trade disputes. All I want you to remember is that it takes two sides to make a quarrel, and that not all the disputes which take place are caused by the cussedness of the workers. Have you ever glanced over any of the publications which are turned out by the Ministry of Labour? If you haven't, you would get a good deal of information which would surprise you. Thousands of disputes are settled by negotiation, and it is certain that without the Unions there would be far more strikes than there are. But you will want to know whether there are likely to be more or fewer strikes in the future. Well, what are the present tendencies? I am not going to bury you under a mass of figures, so I will only say that strikes and lock-outs have been comparatively rare during the last few years. I think the explanation is that neither the employers nor the workers are so ready to use the lock-out or the strike as they used to be. There is a greater feeling of responsibility, and whilst neither of them have the least intention of surrendering any of their rights, there is a greater willingness to try to find some other means of settlement.

Fewer Strikes and Lockouts

Perhaps I can best illustrate what I am driving at by telling you the gist of a conversation I had some years ago with a very old Trade Unionist whose name at one time was known in every household. He had been out of the movement for some years and he said to me, 'What is the matter with your Trade Unions, Citrine? Every time I see one of your delegates going to a conference he has a bagful of papers under his arm. You are spending too much time on statistics, instead of fighting the employers'. I said to him, 'Things have changed since your day. Then you had district agreements with the employers, and your negotiations concerned only a few thousand people. Nowadays negotiations cover every part of the country in which your members are employed, and affect hundreds of thousands. If a strike or a lockout takes place, the consequences are ever so much more serious. It is not now a case of dislocating an industry in a particular town only, but in every town simultaneously. Moreover, the public are much better informed of what is happening. The newspapers report labour questions far more extensively than they used to do. The public conscience is more responsive. People who wouldn't disturb themselves at all about a dispute which was taking place in some remote part of the country will sit up and take notice if there is to be a possibility of a national stoppage.

'Systems of conciliation, arbitration, and public enquiry, have been evolved since your day. Employers and workers now have to state their cases publicly, and it is not eloquent speeches which count, but the substance of the case they have to put. That is why your Trade Union delegate goes to a conference with a bundle of papers under his arm. That is why the Trade Unions are employing trained professional people to supply them with facts and figures, and detailed information about their industries. That is why the Trade Unions have built up an efficient business organisation which can compare in many respects with the best commercial enterprises. And that is why we don't rush into disputes'.

I think it is clear from that conversation what my impression is of the future. I think these national agreements between employers and Trade Unions, practically all of which provide very complete machinery whereby stoppages can be avoided, have come to stay. We shall not get rid of strikes and lockouts completely, but I believe that they will be fewer, that reason will play a greater part, and that the community itself will develop a keener interest and a greater sense of social justice as the years go by. A strong Trade Union movement is the surest guarantee of that.

Relation of Unions to Industry

Great changes are taking place in industry. These are tending to centralise and concentrate production in large combines. I think it unquestionable that this process will be continued and accelerated. I agree entirely with Mr. Macmillan when he describes present-day tendencies as being towards planned and ordered industry. Everyone nowadays realises the necessity for restricting unbridled competition, and so out of the welter of competing interests in industry we can see unmistakable tendencies towards greater co-ordination and co-operation.

Have you ever thought of how, in the development of modern industry, the tendency has grown for the shareholding public to have less and less control over the undertakings in which their money is invested? In some companies they are actually debarred even from exercising a vote, and beyond concerning themselves with questions of dividends they take little interest in the undertaking. There is a huge body of salaried officials—managers, under-managers, departmental heads, research workers, and others—who are almost as detached from ownership as are the workers. I don't believe the formation of these huge industrial and commercial undertakings, and the enormous power they wield, can continue without there being very definite demands for public supervision and control.

The Worker's Share in Control of Industry

Nor can it be imagined that the worker will be content to remain a mere hewer of wood and drawer of water. The principal factor which has emerged in Trade Union policy over the last twenty years is the demand for some share by the workers in the control of industry. Already in such matters as recruitment, dismissals, working conditions, etc., the Unions are exercising a considerable measure of control in individual firms. Furthermore, whilst they recognise that technical, commercial and financial matters are primarily questions of skilled management, they have the feeling that even in this realm, some measure of consultation is imperative. If you are interested you can find the Trade Union view in regard to those matters set forth in the publications of the Trades Union Congress. I must content myself now with saying that I believe the area of collective bargaining will gradually be widened until it embraces all those measures which are of first-class importance to industry and enormously affect the lives of the workers. There have been several evidences of this tendency. The conferences which were held some few years ago between the Trades Union Congress and the group of employers collected together under the chairmanship of the late Lord Melchett covered not only the conditions under which the workers should be employed, but the organisation, technique and control of industry. These have been followed by consultations with the two official employer bodies, the Federation of British Industries, and the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations. This is a perfectly consistent development. Trade Unions in separate industries have their negotiations with the employers, and it is the most natural thing in the world that the central organisation of the Unions, the Trades Union Congress, should meet to discuss with the central bodies of the employers those problems which are common to industry as a whole. These developments might have gone along a good deal further, in some respects, than they have done, but it is a beginning and a development which I predict the future will show the necessity for, more clearly than we can perceive it today.

Now let us consider the relations of the Trade Unions to the State. Trade Union policy is to get in on the ground floor, as it were. We insist upon the Unions being brought into the counsels of the State, not as a political force, but as the recog-

nised body to be consulted whenever the interests of the workers are directly affected. The Unions have been accepted as the unchallenged representatives of the workers, and no Government would think of looking elsewhere. This action has exposed us to a great deal of criticism. Some Trade Unionists think we are becoming too tame, and that we have got no kick. They think that we are propping up the capitalist system, and that what we ought to do is to let it alone and it will collapse. Others think we should rely upon political means more than we do, and secure control of the State by a Parliamentary majority. I think it is probable that a time will arrive when Parliament, whilst retaining its ultimate authority, may find it necessary to divest itself of some of the many economic and industrial questions with which it has to deal. There may be, as Mr. Macmillan believes, an industrial Parliament in which the Government, employers, Trade Unionists, scientists, financiers, and citizens would be represented. What the relationship of the Trade Unions to politics under those circumstances would be, is not easy to foretell, but there is not much probability of the Unions turning their backs upon political means of assisting their objects or of their throwing overboard the party which they have created. I am convinced that Parliament will find it necessary in the interests of the community to transfer to public ownership many of the basic industries upon which the well-being of our people so largely depends. Whatever system is in operation, the Trade Unions would be foolish to allow other people to govern their industrial destiny, and to refuse to take part themselves. We cannot be like some scientist, detached and remote, looking through a microscope at a beetle and watching its struggles. We live under the system. Whatever happens to it affects us immediately. If trade is bad our members are thrown out of work, and all the anxieties and vicissitudes of unemployment follow as a natural consequence. I do not believe that some inanimate force ordains that this or that should happen in our economic and social life. The shaping of events is the outcome of human thought and human endeavour, and I cannot agree that the Trade Union movement with its millions of workers can make no contribution, and exercise no influence on the shaping of those events. We have to be realists. It is no use shutting our eyes to the facts. It doesn't matter what Government is in power, the Trade Unions must pursue their work of looking after the interests of their members.

National Bodies Served by the Unions

Legislation and political action can cover only one part of the activities of the Trade Unions, but it is an important part. The relationship of the Unions to the State is a continuous one. Scarcely a day passes without some Government Department writing to the Unions, seeking advice and sometimes giving it, or asking the Unions to appoint representatives on this or that body, arranging for conferences and deputations, and a hundred and one other things. Members of the movement serve on Boards and Committees covering an enormous variety of questions. Here are just a few that come into my mind: the London Passenger Transport Board; the Railway Rates Tribunal; the Forestry Commission; National Advisory Committee on the Coal Industries; Export Credits Committee; Advisory Committee under the Road Traffic Act. The Unions have given evidence and guidance to Governments on matters of the highest financial, social and economic policy. The terrible slump of the last three years, bringing in its train poverty and misery to millions, made it imperative that the Unions should give careful consideration as to how its worst consequences could be averted. Could organisations representing millions of workers have sat idly by and left it to others to find a solution? I think not. Right throughout, the Trade Unions have taken the view that the situation arose out of clearly defined causes, and that many of those could be removed if only strong enough effort was made in the right direction. I don't want to go into that matter now beyond saying that the Committee on Finance and Industry which was set up by the Government in 1929, and on which there were bankers, economists, industrialists and representatives of business interests, contained also a Trade Union representative.

A Necessary Part of the State Machinery

Trade Union members were appointed to the Economic Advisory Council, which the Government established several years ago. Later, when the Imperial Conference took place at Ottawa, and the World Economic Conference in London, Union representatives took their share in dealing with the many and complex questions which came before the Conference. These appointments were made, you should remember, by a Government to which Trade Unions are politically opposed. This fact alone is a clear indication that both Governments and Trade Unions recognise how necessary it is, apart altogether from party politics, to establish a close and continuous relationship. It is sometimes forgotten that when legislation is passed through the House of Commons it has to be operated by somebody. All sorts of administrative committees and advisory bodies are brought into existence to carry that legislation into practical effect. The recent Unemployment Insurance Act is a case in point. This Act was fought on almost every line by the Labour Party in Parliament. Now that it has become an Act, however, the common-sense course for the Trade Unions is to make the best of what they think is a bad job, and to try to influence its administration so as to make it as sympathetic as possible. Whatever the future may hold in the evolution of the relationship of industry to the State, I think the Trade Unions will be found taking their part in the shaping and influencing of industrial policy.

I have said nothing so far as to the evolution of the structure of the Trade Unions. It should be remembered that we have in Britain almost every type of Union that one can think of. It is almost exactly a reflex of what you find in industry itself. Just as there are large and powerful combinations of employers, so there are large and powerful Trade Unions. Just as there are firms which make only one commodity, so there are Trade Unions which take in only one class of member. Just as there are certain firms which confine their activities to one locality, so there are Trade Unions which do likewise. The structural tendencies in the Trade Union world have been very much the same as those on the employers' side. Just as amalgamations to avoid waste, competition and overlapping have taken place among different firms which have some common interest, so amalgamations have taken place among Unions which have common interests. Where amalgamations are not felt to be possible or desirable, firms have arrangements, agreements and understandings with one another. So in the same way Unions have their understandings, agreements, and arrangements with one another. The tendency is definite, and there has been a very strong movement towards amalgamation. There is not complete agreement upon the form that this amalgamation should take. There is still much controversy about what is called Industrial Unionism—that is to say, the formation of Unions which would enrol everybody employed in the same industry. We have some Unions, such as the Mineworkers' Federation of Great Britain and the National Union of Railwaymen, which correspond roughly to this description. I think it is certain that as concentration among the business units in industry develops, so it will develop in the Trade Union movement. The big Trade Union catering for many grades of workers will become the rule rather than the exception.

New Functions of the Future

There is another tendency which is inevitable. As Trade Unionism widens its scope, new functions will appear. Some of these will be of such a character that they could best be performed by some central body representing all the Unions. More and more will the Unions look to the T.U.C. to exercise these new functions. Just as there is a demand for planned industry, so there will be a demand for planned Trade Unionism, and true to the evolutionary character of British institutions, the changes which will make such planning possible will be almost imperceptibly linked together. Specialisation also has come to stay. More and more we are perceiving the difficulties of combining the attributes of the orator with those of the administrator. Academic training will never be a substitute for that indefinable thing we call personality, but it can be a very valuable adjunct in revealing and broadening qualities which otherwise might only find partial expression. There is a tendency already to require higher educational attainments in officials, and whilst a university accent is not considered to be indispensable, a desire for the opportunities which the universities afford in the development of character will bring the Unions not only into closer touch

(*Continued on page* 84)

In the Arctic Sea

Rescued by Air from the Arctic

By BOSWORTH GOLDMAN

This broadcast on June 28 was the result of an interview by Mr. Goldman with MM. Levanevsky and Molokov, who recently rescued the members of the Expedition sent by the Soviet Government to investigate conditions in the Arctic, where their ship, the 'Cheliuskin', was crushed by floes and the crew and scientists were in danger from the melting ice. The two aviators were in London, but being unable to speak English, could not come to the microphone themselves

I HAVE just come from seeing two of the pilots most intimately connected with the rescue of the survivors from the *Cheliuskin*. When news of the disaster to the *Cheliuskin* herself was first wirelessed to Moscow, immediate preparations were made for obtaining machines and engines for effecting their rescue. Pilot Levanevsky was sent with the chief of the rescuing expedition, Ushakov, to the United States, and this is what he says about their preliminary adventures:

'I heard about the sinking of the *Cheliuskin* when I was on leave in the Ukraine. As I had some experience of flying in the Arctic I cabled immediately to the Government Committee in charge of the rescues and offered my services. My offer to assist in the rescue was accepted, and I went to America with Ushakov to buy the best type of engines for effecting the rescues. You will appreciate how necessary this is when you hear what my fellow pilot, Molokov, has to say about the weather conditions we could expect. When we had bought an aeroplane we returned to Siberia by crossing the Behring Straits from Alaska. The Weather Bureau in Nomé were wrong about the weather we found in Siberia. Almost as soon as we reached the coast of Siberia we flew into a blind fog and a swirling snowstorm. Within ten minutes the aeroplane was covered with ice and began to lose height rapidly. The instruments in the machine ceased to function, due to the ice. In fact, the ice was so heavy that it broke away one of the skis of the undercarriage. The ski fell away and we began to fall sideways. As I could no longer see through the window I broke it with my fist. By now we were almost down to the ice, which came up in sharp hummocks, as it seemed, all round us. I decided that the only way to achieve a landing without disaster to my passengers was to cut off the other ski while still flying. This I did by flying directly at a hummock, and luckily the rest of the undercarriage came off

Passing from ice-rock to ice-rock

Photographs: Planet News

without crashing the machine. I was then able to land on the fuselage of the aeroplane, and Ushakov and the other passengers and myself were able to continue our rescue efforts with the engines we had brought. We mobilised the entire resources of that barren neighbourhood—dogs, sledges and men—and food. Let Molokov tell you how he got on'.

Levanevsky turned to Molokov, who then took up the tale. 'I was on my way by aeroplane down the River Yenesei, when I heard by radio of the sinking of the *Cheliuskin*. This route, from the trans-Siberian Railway to the Arctic coast, is my usual winter trip, and, naturally, I volunteered to go further in order to rescue my comrades from their terrible danger on the ice-floes of the Arctic. My friend Lapidievsky had on March 5 saved ten women and two children, but there still remained ninety-two others on the ice. The rescue planes were sent in a dismantled condition north from Vladivostock. The ship fought its way through the melting ice, and two weeks later we unloaded the machines at Olyutorka. We assembled the machines during a blizzard. There are only too few minutes suitable for flight in the Arctic and one must make full use of every minute, or a sudden storm may make flight entirely impossible. Fogs, too, interfere almost daily with flying. The uniformity of the landscape makes identification of places so difficult that it is almost impossible. When the sun shines it is so blinding that there is no definite horizon; and ice, land and sky almost seem joined together. The wind, too, drifts you off your course, and you have no means of checking where you are. Finally, the ice forming on the wings makes the instruments almost entirely useless.

'On the first day we assembled the machines and, without food, took off for the party encamped on the ice. On this occasion I found them easily, and we delivered to them accumulators for their radio and eight dogs for the sledges, so that the party could convey their sick members to the place we were using as an aerodrome, about six miles away on the same floe. My machine was only a two-seater, and I had left behind my mechanic so as to make room for those I was going to rescue. I only took just enough petrol for the flight there and back so that the machine could be as light as possible. For forty minutes I taught the survivors how to crowd into the machine. Four of them crowded into the mechanic's cockpit, and in addition we jammed two more into some small parachute cases which were fixed under wings of my machine. We cut holes so that they could breathe in that tiny space. Finally, I taught them how to start the machine and I got my passengers back to the base in about forty minutes.

'Now that the survivors had learnt how to crowd themselves into my machine I was able to make several flights a day. But on one occasion when I set out from the base the wind carried me so far from my course that though I searched about for two and a-half hours I was unable to find the camp. This will give you some idea how difficult flying there is. Gradually we rescued them all, and on the last flight I took off the *Cheliuskin's* Captain with the radiologist. I took the eight dogs as well, which by now seemed almost accustomed to flying. All that was left on the ice was the camp itself, with the Red Flag still flying over it. The *Cheliuskin* Camp had ceased to exist'.

Mind the Doctor

Is There an 'Unconscious Mind'?

A Discussion between a NEUROLOGIST and a MEDICAL PSYCHOLOGIST

NEUROLOGIST: It seems to me that modern psychology has become an unwieldy mass of theory, insecurely balanced upon a small foundation of fact. And like all theories that run to seed, it has produced a complicated jargon of technical terms that mean something different to everyone who uses them, and have ceased to be scientific counters.

MEDICAL PSYCHOLOGIST: I think it is also your view that a sound body of psychological opinion exists which will have nothing to do with such nonsense, that satisfactory explanations of the illnesses in question can be given in commonsense terms of mal-adaptation.

NEUROLOGIST: Yes. I cannot accept the notion of the 'unconscious mind'. It appears to me to be unnecessary—and, therefore, unsound as a scientific conception. As a figure of speech there might be something to be said for it, as long as it remained a clear and simple one. But it has become a sort of Pandora's box, out of which springs a choice assortment of evils whenever the analyst opens the lid.

PSYCHOLOGIST: And I think you hold that in science, commonsense has the last word.

NEUROLOGIST: Yes: in fact, science has been defined as organised commonsense.

PSYCHOLOGIST: Still, you would agree that in the history of science, particularly in the history of medical science, 'commonsense' has frequently been another name for ignorance—that the commonsense of one generation is often in the next recognised to be superstition. As a matter of fact, science largely consists in overcoming the appearance of things which 'commonsense' first points to. Commonsense says that the sun goes round the earth and sets in the West!

NEUROLOGIST: Yes, that's quite true. But don't suppose that I hold any brief for the amateur in science, or that I look on commonsense as a substitute for knowledge. I suggest that commonsense is an essential ingredient of science, but that it has been a little forgotten in some modern psychology.

PSYCHOLOGIST: In that case, I must congratulate you on having taken up a position that will appeal to all who believe in the robustness of commonsense. Now you are by training a neurologist and, I take it, also a physiologist. Do you believe that this special training qualifies you to judge psychological issues—or do you base your right to judge on the fact that as a neurologist you make a great deal of contact with psychological illness?

NEUROLOGIST: Every doctor is constantly being brought into contact with psychological issues, and can't properly evade them. In dealing with very many of them, his commonsense is often a completely adequate weapon, but some of them do, of course, require special knowledge. The neurologist, on the other hand, spends a considerable proportion of his time in grappling with them, from the day he begins his training, and throughout his professional life. And just as he has to equip himself with the necessary knowledge of the nervous system, so must he do with the mind.

PSYCHOLOGIST: That sounds reasonable enough. But of course the obvious question is: what exactly do you mean by mind? Now, I happen to be one of those psychologists whose views on mind you repudiate in no uncertain terms. And you seem to me to neglect one of the most fundamental principles of science—namely, to go in for as complete a training as possible in the subject before you arrive at conclusions or deliver yourself of criticisms.

NEUROLOGIST: Surely that's begging the question, until you have told us what is your idea of an adequate training. What are your views on this?

PSYCHOLOGIST: Quite seriously, to me there is only one road to understanding the abnormalities of mind, and the powerful influence mind exerts over bodily function. It is essential to make a prolonged and direct study of mental phenomena, starting with the extraordinary mechanisms operating during the first five years of life, and continuing step by step down to the regressive changes of old age. These studies must be pursued in the first place directly, and subsequently reinforced by adequate instruction in all cognate sciences. For example, next to the study of insanity we place study of mental phenomena in primitive races.

NEUROLOGIST: And how shall I hope to make myself at home in this vast field of knowledge? To provide all this information would tax the intellectual resources of a university.

PSYCHOLOGIST: But I don't ask you to tax the resources of any university. The first step is a practical one—to find how mind works. Any of the modern institutes of clinical psychology would serve your purpose. And if, for any reason, you found this approach unsatisfactory, you could apprentice yourself to some medical psychologist or another, whose credentials appeal to you.

NEUROLOGIST: Well, at any rate, you believe that the properly trained medical psychologist has acquired an adequate working knowledge of mental phenomena, while the neurologist hasn't even attempted to do so, and is, in fact, no better than an amateur trying to make commonsense do for knowledge. It is strange, though, that you omit physiology from your cognate sciences. The old psychologists used to say that one had to be a physiologist before one became a psychologist.

PSYCHOLOGIST: But we don't omit physiology; it is an essential part of our preliminary training: and in any case I don't suggest that a neurologist can learn nothing from his psychological cases. As a rule he learns just as much as his existing physiological prejudices will permit him. I wouldn't even exclude the possibility that he might make psychological discoveries of some importance. After all, the foundations of modern clinical psychology were actually laid by a young neurologist called Freud.

NEUROLOGIST: 'As much as his existing prejudices will permit him'. That's a good phrase. It can only mean that the medical psychologist has purged himself of all prejudices. Surely the limitation you're trying to put to the neurologist must necessarily apply to the medical psychologist? He has his prejudices, too, but they aren't the same as the neurologist's. In fact, circumstances have put him so often on the defensive, that he has thrown up a very stockade of prejudices round himself. But I'd like to ask one pointed question: isn't it a fact that you think that to be psychoanalysed himself is the real essence of a training for the medical psychologist?

PSYCHOLOGIST: Yes, and for the very reasons you have yourself just given—that he must get rid of prejudices. I have never claimed that a medical psychologist has purged himself of all prejudices; I merely recommend that he should try to do so. It is for this reason that all students of psychoanalysis, for example, have accepted the scientific discipline of having their own emotional stresses as thoroughly ventilated as possible.

NEUROLOGIST: But surely this involves the neurologist in an intellectual submission to your doctrines.

PSYCHOLOGIST: We don't ask anyone to make intellectual submission; we merely ask them to undergo training.

NEUROLOGIST: I feel you're taking up rather a sacerdotal attitude about this question of training.

PSYCHOLOGIST: That is exactly what lay people say about the medical profession. But what you suggest is a sacramental pose is neither more nor less than a scientific precaution.

NEUROLOGIST: You seem to me to require the neurologist to make an act of faith, or to give a blank cheque to the psychoanalyst.

PSYCHOLOGIST: We shall have to agree to differ. But there is still an issue between us so vital that, in my opinion, it accounts for the reluctance of the neurologist to give the psychologist what you call a blank cheque—the fact that a physiologist's training and outlook are a positive hindrance to understanding the workings of mind. The average physiologist has failed to question the 'commonsense' view that mind and consciousness are one and the same. You, for example, believe that anything a person is not conscious of can only be pictured in physiological terms.

NEUROLOGIST: This point has been a bone of contention between many generations of neurologists and psychologists, and not all the psychologists have been of one mind about it. You will admit this, I suppose?

PSYCHOLOGIST: Certainly, there have been, and still are, active controversies in psychological circles, as in all scientific ones. The fact is itself a proof of the vitality of the science. But don't forget that however much they may differ as to the exact content of the unconscious, or the nature of the forces which govern that part of mind, all modern groups of clinical psychology are actually agreed on precisely these points which you regard as phantastic—the existence of the unconscious, of repressed memories, and of unconscious states of guilt.

NEUROLOGIST: I think you'd agree that conscious states of mind are necessarily accompanied by activity of the brain—that is, by physiological function; and that unconscious states of mind—if there be any—must also be accompanied by physiological activity. But at this point we part company, for I maintain that in what you call unconscious mental activity, there is physiological function—brain action—and nothing else. I don't see the necessity for supposing that states of mind accompany unconscious activities of the brain. The burden of proof is on you.

PSYCHOLOGIST: And yet, you maintain almost in the same breath that modern psychological ideas are both grotesque and unscientific! What you have just said is doubtless a harmless form of speculation, but it is grossly unscientific in the sense that it doesn't explain the facts of observation. On the other hand, we hold that the existence of the unconscious can be proved up to the hilt, and that it not only explains the facts of observation, but in some instances, enables us to predict behaviour.

NEUROLOGIST: It is simply because you won't try to understand the functions of the nervous system that you have been forced to invent an unconscious mind, and so to transgress the law of scientific economy. You must have two explanations where I believe that one would do, and a simpler one than yours.

PSYCHOLOGIST: But these physiological explanations of yours are so irrelevant to any human issue. It's as if a dramatist were to write a problem play and suddenly in the last act stop to deliver a brilliant lecture on the mechanics of the revolving stage. Besides, the facts we have to explain are not simple. If a patient torn with domestic disharmony tells you he has broken down because of overwork, that is a simple explanation, but one that would only take in simple minds. Indeed, I can well understand that you regard unconscious content as a monstrous fiction. You reproach clinical psychologists for their grotesque ideas, instead of recognising that mental function has grotesque forms, which call insistently for explanation.

NEUROLOGIST: Let's take your example. It's one every doctor meets. The man who blames overwork in the situation you mention is certainly deceiving himself, or at any rate he is not using his wits, but I still can't see why we should blame his unconscious mind—nor, to go back to a point you made just now, can I see that I need to be psychoanalysed myself or to analyse the unhappy man to discover what is the matter with him. Now it seems to me that the psychoanalyst wants to make a mystery of all this. What proof can you give me that your way of looking at this is a sound one?

PSYCHOLOGIST: Take, for example, the fact that all poets and religious people know they are affected by influences outside consciousness. Add to this the unintelligibility of many conscious activities, in particular those which are commonly called lunatic or insane. You may recall the medium who spouted screeds of Hindustani, although she didn't know a word of the language and had never been in India. And what of the results of hypnotic experiment, showing that conduct can be influenced by ideas of which the subject is completely unaware; or proving that memories can be recovered by hypnotism, and subsequently confirmed?

NEUROLOGIST: Such phenomena are not really explained by assuming the existence of an unconscious mind.

PSYCHOLOGIST: Very well! Do you remember how Dr. Johnson, that apostle of robust commonsense, was frequently unable to cross the threshold of a door, without whirling and twisting in order to go through remarkable gesticulations, or that he would stop in the street to make gestures like a jockey riding a horse? Sensitive as he was, he had to endure the derision of a mob that crowded round to watch his antics. Now when we come across similar inexplicable reactions in our patients—for example, when we find that a man cannot kiss his wife unless she wears black gloves—we are able, by investigation of 'the unconscious', to establish the missing links in thought, by which the person arrives at such bizarre conclusions—and render the behaviour intelligible. There is no reason to suppose that in course of time the complexities of the unconscious mind will not prove as elaborate as the recognised complexities of body.

NEUROLOGIST: I believe that the result of a mental analysis varies according to the theories held by the particular analyst, rather than according to what is in the patient's mind. Think, too, of the unconscionable time it takes to go through the process.

PSYCHOLOGIST: You seem to believe that analysts started with a ready-made system of ideas which they proceeded to force on their patients as a conjurer would a card, whereas the fact is that analytical discoveries were made through empirical observations and to this day can be confirmed by empirical methods. The issue between us is roughly this—whether modern clinical psychologists are dreamers or whether their patients are. And at least we can unite in forming the scientific resolution to listen more and more to our patients in the future.

Science Notes

Calculating Boys

A SHORT account was lately given in the correspondence pages of *Nature* of the exploits of an uneducated Arab boy of unusual arithmetical ability who recently died in a Government asylum in Cairo. He came of a poor family, was unable to read or write and was of low general intelligence. When first discovered he was making a precarious living by exhibiting his powers of calculating mentally in the cafés of Cairo. He could square numbers of two digits almost instantaneously. He could give products and squares of numbers with three digits in times varying from eight to forty-five seconds. He was hardly less slow in cubing numbers. He could work out the exact values of 5^{10} in twenty seconds, of 6^{10} in seventy seconds, and of 8^{16} within five minutes. Division he did more slowly than multiplying; nevertheless he could do astonishing feats there also. He could extract the square roots of numbers with six digits very rapidly while cube roots took longer. He could break off calculations in the middle to attend to other business and take up the work accurately again where he had broken off. His methods of work were not discovered but he had obviously memorised the squares of numbers with two digits, and less completely the products of numbers with two digits. He was nineteen when he died.

This boy was a good, although not a remarkable, illustration in our day of the rare class of calculating boys (they are apparently always boys) who astonish their contemporaries by their quickness in multiplying, dividing and factorising numbers, in extracting square, cube and other roots, and in doing mentally other arithmetical work which an expert mathematician could do only with the aid of pen and paper and a generous allowance of time. They attract attention because they are experts in a medium which we all understood and can appreciate—in which, however inexpert, we are all performers. The gift seems all the more remarkable because the boys are often only eight or ten and self-taught or uneducated and because their general intelligence is rarely above the normal.

W. W. Rouse Ball in his book *Mathematical Recreations and Essays* devotes a chapter to these prodigies which will amaze anybody who has never studied this subject before. All of them have really excellent memories, especially for lists of numbers. (They can see the numbers in their minds, and hear them there, and they get additional help, it is said, from the muscles of speech.) They develop from the age of about six onwards a quite terrific interest in numbers of all kinds; they think of numbers to the exclusion of almost all else. Thus, one of the earliest of calculating boys could not hear of a distance in miles without being impelled to turn it into the correct number of inches, or of a time in days without converting it to seconds. When we do no more than add up the hymns on the board in church, these boys not only multiply them, square and cube them, but even count without apparent effort every word and sometimes every syllable of the sermon. It is understandable that to these people every integer of reasonable size soon becomes almost a personal friend. They discover for themselves, or learn from others, devices for shortening some of their processes and so they proceed from strength to strength. Like most people with good memories, they are self-confident. They become stimulated by the astonishment which their performances excite in their companions and this encourages them to apply their powers to ever-increasing difficulties. There is, however, nothing inexplicable in any of the performances of which we possess reliable record. The gift does not set in at an age earlier than that at which clever boys can perform the corresponding arithmetical processes slowly on paper. Nor are feats done with that approximation to instantaneousness which some people think or reports have exaggerated. When the problem is a new one in the sense that the calculator has not previously done it and remembered the answer, he takes at least as long over it as a clever but ungifted calculator would take with paper and pencil. He surprises partly because he can handle such large lists of numbers mentally, partly because he has already prepared answers to some of our questions. It is all extremely astonishing; it is all quite definitely something we could not do ourselves, but it is only another example of the doings of the expert appearing wonderful to the inexpert.

The gift, while good within bounds as a drawing-room trick, is not one excessively useful to the boy in after-life. No problem in contemporary life is helped by knowing the tenth power of the number 8, and, for simpler problems, there are such things as logarithm tables. As the calculating boy gets older he tends to think of other things besides numbers and, as his gift requires constant practice to keep it in good form, it tends to diminish. G. P. Bidder (1806—1878) was one of the few who kept up the practice all his life. As a boy of ten he had astonished his friends by calculating the interest on £11,111 for 11,111 days at 5 per cent. per annum, getting the answer right in one minute, and by taking only half that time to extract the square root of 119,550,669,121. When he was fifty he wrote a monograph on the subject which has become a classic. This dispels all mystery from the gift without in any way belittling it. Granted that the boy has a natural aptitude for numbers, knows the dodges for doing the calculations in the shortest way, and has good visualising or auditory sense for recollecting numbers, the results follow. Consider one of the problems which the Arab boy could do. He evaluated 6^{10} mentally as 60,466,176 within 70 seconds. This, I find, can be accurately worked out with pencil and paper by a boy good at figures but not a prodigy in about 25 seconds. The prodigy, if he works the sum by saying 6, 36, 216, 1296, etc., has merely to be able to multiply by six (which we can all do), keep these successive numbers in his mind (by visualising them or 'hearing' them or both) and go at about a third of the normal pace. There is nothing out of the way here except in using the mind as a sheet of paper. It is known that the untutored prodigies work much more slowly than those who have been taught arithmetic properly. If the Arab boy had first evaluated 6^5 as 7776 and known the dodges for squaring a number like that mentally, he could have got his answer within the half-minute.

The extraction of cube and fifth always appears to the inexpert as something more wonderful than obtaining a square root. It is usually much easier. It is part of the ritual that the answer is an integer, largely because the man who sets the problem does not want to increase his task of preparing a number for the calculator by bringing in decimals. An integral answer lightens the calculator's burden enormously. Bidder had once to find the cube root of 188,132,517. Any arithmetician in practice knows that the answer must have three digits of which the first is 5. Bidder happened to know that when a cube ends in 17 the only number that can give it must end in 73. The answer in consequence was 573, and was given by Bidder almost instantaneously to the astonishment of those present. He was in luck there. Fifth roots are even simpler. At first sight the extraction of the fifth root from 380,204,032 seems a difficult mental operation. The calculator, however, knows from the arithmetic book that the answer has two digits only. The first is the number whose fifth power is less than, and nearest to, 3802—5—and the second is 2 because all fifth roots end with the same digit as the number itself. In getting the answer 52 the solver had clearly an easier task than the poser.

While it is undeniable that calculating boys as a class have not been eminently successful in after-life, and patent that the kind of calculation they do can be done more readily now by mechanical means, it is true to say, I think, that no one would be any good in the physical and mathematical sciences who has not the gift in small but disciplined measure. Of its three elements—quickness, the power of visualising, the power of remembering numbers and symbols—the last two are really the most important. The gift tends to be useless in so far as it concentrates on quickness, for it restricts the mind to problems which are spectacular but of little value; it keeps it within the narrow bounds of arithmetic. The two other elements help the mind in the larger world of mathematics and physics where the harvest is still rich.

A. S. RUSSELL

What I Like in Art—V

Joachim and Anna at the Golden Gate

By Professor W. G. CONSTABLE

I HAVE always been conscious that my interest or pleasure in any particular work of art may be quite irrelevant to its merits. It may contain sources of pleasure which are purely personal to myself, such as reminders of incidents or scenes which I have enjoyed in the past; and in my personal make-up a delight in certain qualities, and condonation of certain defects, may find an entirely different balance to that which they would find in somebody else.

But the Editor of THE LISTENER has not asked me the question: What do you consider the qualities which constitute a great work of art? but, Why do you like the particular work of art you have chosen? So I can without shame avoid embarking on the thorny question as to whether the merits of a work of art can be assessed by objective tests or whether they are a matter of subjective judgment; and give myself up to self-examination, as to why 'The Meeting of Joachim and Anna at the Golden Gate', one of the series of paintings by Giotto on the walls of the Arena Chapel at Padua, moved me so profoundly when I first saw it twenty-three years ago, and has moved me more deeply on every subsequent visit, and on every new study of it in reproduction.

I can say at once that it is not the fact of its being an extremely vivid illustration of a very moving story. When I first saw the painting, the story of Joachim and Anna had little significance to me. I am not sure, even, that I recognised the incident represented. But I experienced a vivid sense of participation in a decisive moment in two people's lives, when a desire so eagerly awaited had been attained, that joy was almost painful in its intensity. Thus, undoubtedly, the first emotional impact of the painting came from association with previous experience of human joys and sorrows; and, I confess, wider and longer experience of human nature and closer familiarity with the story of Joachim and Anna have intensified the power of the painting to move me in this way. Such an admission may seem to put me outside the pale of modern critical opinion, and commit me to a defence of Luke Fildes' 'The Doctor' and similar work. But there are other factors to be taken into account. Though to obtain its full dramatic effect, the painting involves experience of human emotion, and how that emotion is expressed both facially and by gesture, the means by which those associations are evoked are of a special kind and not by simple imitation of natural forms. Judged by the test of the mirror, the painting is not particularly successful. The perspective of the Golden Gate, and of the bridge leading to it, are faulty according to the rules of scientific perspective; the proportion of figures to buildings is unusual, if not impossible; the draperies fall in a stiff, arbitrary way, very unlike those familiar from drapers' windows; and the types, though definitely human, are conventionalised. But throw the test of the mirror aside, and ask, *not*, Are the shapes in the painting like anything in this world?; *but*, Are they convincing in themselves, as part of a world created by the painter's imagination? Imitation, obedience to the teaching of the mirror, can only yield something less real, less vivid than the thing it reflects; but the artist, by selection, combination and invention, can create things that may be more real and vivid than the things of this world, since he can suppress accidents and irrelevancies. The things so created may be the equivalent of something in this world; but through the artist's imagination they take on a new life of their own.

Detail from the Meeting of Joachim and Anna

This is exactly what has happened in the painting. Every gesture has a definite significance in relation to the central event—the embrace of Joachim and Anna—and emphasizes it; the treatment of the drapery emphasizes the effect of each gesture; every facial expression has a relation to that central event; and the conventionalising of the types makes those expressions more striking in effect. Thus, in Anna's companions appears the conventional facile pleasure in the news that a child is to be born; while the stolidity of the peasant on the left, and the suspicious glance of the woman in a dark cloak, express almost unbelief in the possibility of the event taking place. In Joachim and Anna, the two elements combine, and are sublimated, hope and joy warring with fear. Similarly, the proportions of the figures to the background are contrived to emphasise the human, dramatic element, and not to dwarf it. In fact, Giotto has made great use of abstraction, to secure dramatic concentration.

This, then, is my first point, that Giotto has created a dramatic situation whose understanding depends on experience of human nature, and upon knowledge of how human beings express themselves; but that he has made this situation capable of being felt and understood far more intensely than would otherwise be possible, by setting it in a world of his own imagination created from the world of everyday life by abstraction and simplification. To put the same thing in another way, he has generalised, and isolated the emotions he wished to convey, so that in the spectator's experience they become more fundamental and intense.

He has, however, gone farther than this: he has given to the world he has created a coherence and unity, a harmony and justness of proportion, which is in itself satisfying. The design

The Meeting of Joachim and Anna at the Golden Gate: one of the frescoes by Giotto in the Arena Chapel at Padua

Photographs: W. F. Mansell

of the painting has all the qualities of fine architecture in the balance of its masses, and in their ordered sequence. It is mainly based on two intersecting planes, both vertical and both set at an angle to the plane of the picture's surface. In one, receding from left to right, is placed the front row of figures from Joachim to the woman farthest to the right; in the other, receding from right to left, is the Golden Gate, and the woman in a dark robe. Each of these planes is emphasised and echoed by subsidiary planes running parallel to them. Thus, the plane of the bridge and of the building seen through the archway follows that of the major plane receding from left to right; and the two most distant women suggest a plane parallel to that in which the Gate is placed. A subsidiary third plane, runs parallel to and behind the surface of the picture; and is defined by the figure of Joachim, and the right-hand tower of the Gate.

The two receding planes intersect about in the middle of the picture, at the figure of the woman in a light coloured dress. About this centre, the main masses are distributed. Thus in the plane receding from left to right, the figures of Joachim and Anna are balanced by those of the three women to the right; in the plane of the Gate, the towers and the arch are symmetrical in relation to the centre; and in the one running parallel to the surface, the figures of Joachim and Anna are balanced by the rusticated part and the base of the right-hand tower of the Gate. This mechanical, almost mathematical, basis of Giotto's design gives the painting its unified coherent quality. It is the skeleton or framework of the world brought into being by Giotto. Three-dimensional itself, by virtue of the recession of the vertical planes, it ensures that that world shall be three-dimensional. Moreover, it helps to ensure that masses set within that space shall have a definite relation one to another, since they must be set within the limits of the constructional planes.

The importance of this three-dimensional quality is that it gives the artist greater scope for the setting up of rhythm in his design. He can establish a satisfying or exciting relation between voids and masses, as well as between spaces and shapes on the picture surface.

But the existence of a well-constructed frame-work means more than this. It gives the same support to the work of the painter as the armature does to the sculptor or the theme to the musician. It gives a security, a certainty of basic unity which gives increased freedom to the artist in his disposition of forms and colours. So, the mechanical basis of design can become merged into, and be the support of, design as emotional expression. This clearly appears in the present case; by various means, such as accents of light and shade, emphasis of colour, and, above all, by spacing, the figures of Joachim and Anna are made the emotional centre of his design, to which the mind and eye constantly returns; but they remain part of a consistent whole. Isolated, by means analogous to the spotlight of the theatre, they would have lost reality; anchored to other things, they live more vividly.

This creation of an emotional centre is the main example in the painting of the security given to the painter to make

variations on his main theme or themes. The multiplication of the main planes, which give both emphasis and variety, I have already mentioned. Other examples are afforded in the movement of the figures, and the handling of their robes, which create a series of arc-shaped movements across the picture, balancing the curves of the arches of the Gate and of the bridge.

Two other elements in the building up of the painting need consideration: the use of colour and of light and shade. The colour conforms to the general colour scheme of the chapel, in that the architecture is a warm stone colour, against the pale blue of the sky; and Joachim wears a rose-coloured mantle over a light-blue robe, and Anna a brownish red robe. But Giotto's use of colour has gone further than creating an agreeable colour pattern. Combined with the use of light and shade, he has created a feeling of aerial and atmospheric envelopment, which greatly contributes to the unity of the painting, by creating a sense of the events happening at a specific time and place. Giotto has not achieved the unity of lighting, which was so powerful a weapon in the hands of Masaccio; nor has he explored the modulation of colour as a method of defining form, as did the Impressionists and Cézanne. But despite inconsistencies in the lighting of surfaces, and virtual ignorance of such factors as the use of complementary colours in shadow and the influence of reflected light, the total effect of Giotto's handling is to use chiaroscuro and colour to reinforce the effect of his design.

Thus, Giotto has achieved a double unity. A dramatic and emotional unity, partly secured by calling into play the influence of association, has been linked to a pictorial unity, which stands by itself, obtained by the use of form, light and colour. The two converge to create on the wall an exceptionally real and vivid world, balanced, harmonious, coherent, in which emotion has a greater concentration and a more fundamental character than can be realised in the world in which we live. In so far as he is capable of identifying himself with that world, the spectator can share in its joys and sorrows, and find his emotions exalted and purged.

Island Tour—VI

The Scilly Isles

By S. P. B. MAIS

I SET sail for the Isles of Scilly, that 'small sweet world of wave-encompassed wonder', on May Day. The distance is forty miles, and it took four hours. There were forty passengers.

In the summer I am told that four hundred visitors are frequently crammed on to the boat for the day trip. But when I made the journey flowers were taking precedence over passengers, sailings being reduced to the winter service of three a week each way. My first impression of the islands, seen from a great way off in the May Day haze, was that they were very low sort of stepping-stones across a giant's river, or mushroom puffs. Indeed their highest point is only 158 feet.

We sailed through St. Mary's Sound with St. Mary's on our right and St. Agnes on our left, and found ourselves in an almost land-locked sea of vivid blue. The pond-like waters of Hugh Town harbour, with the pure white sandy bottom of the shallow sea clearly visible, struck me as exactly the sort of place that Gulliver waded through to capture the fleet of Blefuscu. St. Mary's, the largest island, is only two-and-a-half miles long and its population 1,200. None of the other islands has a length of over one-and-a-half miles or a population of over 130. This is no place to bring a car. Feet and a boat will take you everywhere. Hugh Town, the capital, is a grey crescent-shaped cheerful village of one narrow street and a few modest but cheap and excellent hotels. It stands on a narrow neck of land with the sea both at its front and back doors.

After luncheon I set out on a motor-launch called *White Hope* for the north side of the archipelago, which consists of two hundred islands, all of granite, but only five inhabited. On landing on the island of Tresco, a voyage of under two miles, I sauntered over the low sand dunes and nearly put my foot in a ringed-plovers' nest with two eggs in it. The nest was just an imprint left by a man's heel in the sand at the side of the cart track. A minute later I received another shock, for there in the drive of the grey stone Abbey was an Indian crane, walking in a jerky self-conscious way that only became more absurdly self-conscious as I produced my camera. When I opened a small gate to let him rejoin three other cranes, he first bowed to me and then performed a most dainty *pas seul*.

I wandered into the Abbey garden looking for the gardener, and met a man who told me that I had come to the wrong entrance, and so I walked along under palms, eucalyptus trees and cedars of Lebanon until I came to a red gate with a ship's bell above it, which I rang, and while I waited I inspected a gallery of old wooden figure-heads of famous ships that had been wrecked on the Isles of Scilly. There was a Spanish dancing girl, Friar Tuck, George IV, and an Indian Prince, a Prima Donna, a dolphin and an admiral.

While I was looking at these grim reminders of old wrecks, the gardener appeared, and I was at once struck by his slow, melodious, soft, almost inaudible voice. He told me the name, usually in Latin, of nearly every tree and shrub in these gardens, but owing to the softness of his voice, I only heard the names of about one in ten of the trees and flowers he was showing me, but I did discover that the majority of the trees came from New Zealand and Australia, and that the loveliest and commonest flower on the Isles of Scilly is the mesembryanthemum, which the children call 'icy' or 'ice-plant'. The whole garden was brilliantly splashed with the magenta and orange of this prolific plant. I saw citron fully grown and ready to pick, the Japanese banana, the Australian lobster-claw plant, a Mexican yucca, a South American tree with huge yellow and red trumpet-shaped flowers, a Chilian puya, a giant bugloss besieged by battalions of honey-bees, a New Zealand ironwood bearing flowers of bright crimson, a Burmese honeysuckle, a Himalayan ginger, Australian scarlet bottle-brush, and a Madeira lily of the valley tree. From everywhere came the sweet smell of freesia.

At 5 o'clock I rejoined the *White Hope* at the quay on the north end of the island where the collier *Dido* of Barnstaple was unloading, and the flower-boxes from Tresco were being transferred from a horse and cart standing in the water to the hold of an old black barge left heeling over by the ebbing tide.

We sailed across to the island of Bryher, a place of primuli and gorse and sandy beeches, to pick up a couple of marooned elderly men with faces turned almost beetroot colour by the hot sun. And so across the inland sea, the surface of which was covered with razor-bills, puffins and shearwaters, back to St. Mary's. As I was sitting after dinner on the rocks of Penniums Head on the south side of St. Mary's, gazing over an empty still sea to a limitless horizon, with only the cuckoo's note ringing in my ears, quite suddenly, swiftly, silently, and smoothly from behind St. Agnes came the three red-and-black funnelled *Berengaria*, homeward bound from New York. If you want to see an Atlantic liner at her most majestic and most beautiful, see her steaming past the Bishop Light on a quiet May evening at sunset.

I spent the next morning in the local school, and was astonished at the quality of the English that I heard. Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch attributes this exceptional purity to the fact that in Cromwell's day the Bedfordshire Regiment were stationed in the islands and married the islanders.

After luncheon I again crossed the bay to revisit Tresco, this time to call on the owner of the island, Major Dorrien Smith. My ringed plover's nest now had three eggs in it, in place of the two of the day before. He showed me a number of American birds that had migrated over here, a golden oriole, an American night-jar, cousin of the whippoorwill, the American cuckoo, the loon, a huge goose-looking bird, the hoopje, the bittern, Greenland falcon, and peregrine falcon. A peregrine had been seen by Mrs. Dorrien Smith going over the garden the afternoon before. Even American butterflies fly over Tresco. On the waters and rocks of this island are shearwaters, razor-bills, puffins, oyster-catchers, ringed-plover, great black-backed gulls, and lesser black-backed gulls. Shearwaters like puffins lay their eggs in holes in the ground, but are so easily the prey of the savage great black-backed gulls that men have to go round the nests and prick their eggs with a long hatpin to prevent them from increasing in too great numbers.

Cottage at the entrance to the Abbey grounds, Isle of Tresco, with figureheads of ships that have been wrecked on the Scilly Isles
Photograph: J. Dixon-Scott

The islands produce potatoes and flowers earlier than anywhere else in the British Isles, and the wind does its best to destroy them. So stockades of high wind-brakes have to be grown to protect them. Coniferous trees grow fast but are liable to be blown down by gales, and deciduous trees are too slow in growing. The Major surrounds his plots of ground with bushes of escalonia and huge shrubs from the antipodes. He told me that the potatoes known as 'niggers', because of the earth that clings to them, are rightly appreciated by the North of England as the best-tasting potatoes in the world, but despised by the cooks of London as too 'dirty'.

As soon as I got back to St. Mary's, I walked across the island and was surprised to find the mesembryanthemums growing on every cottage wall. Nearly every field seemed to be filled with narcissi or tulips and almost every cart I passed on the road was filled with narcissi. The whole land is full of novel scents and great splashes of colour. It is just one large flower garden. At one farm called Lunnon, I was invited in, and my hostess, Mrs. Stideford, showed me cineraria in full flower. Don't forget that this was in the first week in May! They were bunching pheasant's-eye narcissi in her packing houses and the mingled scent of that and of the night-scented stock remain with me as the typical scent of the Isles of Scilly.

I wanted to spend the next day on the lonely western island of Annet, watching the sea birds, but I was told that it was too rough to land, so I contented myself with sailing to St. Agnes, an island of eighty people, about half-a-mile broad and a mile long, with a smaller island known as the Gugh, full of barrows, joined on to it at low tide by a slender sandy bar. I walked up a narrow sandy lane past the black-and-white lighthouse and the landing place of the Irish Saint, St. Wanda, and at the coastguard station I stopped to talk to two coastguards who were mowing the rough grass in front of their homes. I noticed that the haystacks on the opposite side of the lane were held down with heavy stones to protect them against the gales.

As I looked over the scores of rocks between us and the Bishop lighthouse, I saw a tiny steamer threading its way through them. 'Ah', said one of the coastguards, 'there comes the *Stormy Petrel*. Her real name's the *Mermaid*; she's the tender that goes from the Bishop to the Wolf. We call her the *Stormy Petrel*, for whenever she comes we always get a storm'. He laughed rather strangely. 'That's an old wives' tale, of course', he said. Larks were singing overhead. There was no wind. Tiny fishing boats were out among these dangerous reefs. The sky was cloudless. The glass I knew, stood very high. I laughed, too. 'Of course', I repeated. Within thirty hours the sea was being lashed by an eighty-mile-an-hour gale to a fury that I have seldom seen excelled, and I was watching it. Odd, these old wives' tales.

The coastguards told me that they had not tasted beer or been off the island for ten months. They were very proud of the fact that the Prince of Wales called on them thirteen years ago, and reminded me of the fact that he was the first member of the Royal family ever to set foot on St. Agnes.

I went on to the westernmost edge of St. Agnes and looked out over the treacherous rocks of Gorregan, Melledgans Rosevean, Jackys and the Crebawethans, a low range of volcanic hummocks that lie like a breakwater across the outer rim of the islands, and have caused so many tragedies. It was here that Sir Cloudesley Shovel and his two thousand men were drowned in 1707. It was here that the German liner *Schüller* on her way from New York went down in 1875.

That afternoon I crossed Crow Sound to the Eastern Isles, and passed the island of St. Martin's, which has three villages, called Higher, Middle and Lower Town and a total population of 130. 'And they're all well-off', said my boatman. It certainly looks a happy island. It is full of sandy beaches and contains the highest land of the archipelago, a seventeenth-century day-mark standing in grand isolation on a headland one hundred and fifty feet high.

My object in going to the Eastern Isles was to find seals, and in spite of choppy water I managed to reach a lonely rock called Hanjague and on it I saw a large grey seal, which glided gracefully into the waves as we approached. He must have given the warning, for instantly black flashing noses kept on popping up all

round the boat. The return journey was a succession of skilful manœuvres among submerged rocks, sandbanks and cliffs. Among the sea pink growing on the tops of these tiny rock islands stood thousands of sea-birds keeping guard over their nests.

I am told that the Romans built a road across Crow Sound which you can still see if you peer down into the bottom of the clear shallow water. I spent the evening wandering round the fortifications that guard the rocky peninsula above Hugh Town. Star Castle, built in the shape of a star with the arms, initials and date of Queen Elizabeth, which once sheltered the fugitive Charles II, is now a hotel, and from its upper windows you can see eight lights, the Lizzard, Pendeen, Peninnis, the Bishop, Round Island, Seven Stones, Longship and Wolf.

Peninnis Head, St. Mary's

As I sat gazing out over the flaming gorse at Woolpack Point—I have never seen gorse more golden than on St. Mary's on this May evening—for the second night I was rewarded by the grand sight of a trans-Atlantic liner homeward bound. This time it was a four-funnelled yellow-and-black giant, the *Olympic*.

On my way back to the mainland on the following day, a small elderly blue-eyed man buttonholed me and told me that my overcoat was buttoned up wrongly. It usually is. But to this carelessness I owe a most enjoyable sea trip, for the man turned out to be a Scillonian bred from generations of Scillonians, and full of facts about his island. After reminding me that under the water we were crossing lies the lost land of Lyonesse with most of King Arthur's Knights buried there, he told me that the Romans used St. Mary's for convicts, that Olaf, King of Norway was first wounded and then baptised here, that the Godolphins held the islands for two-hundred-and-fifty years until exactly a hundred years ago when Algernon Smith of Hertfordshire leased them and built Tresco Abbey, and that his family held all the islands until 1920, when they surrendered all except Tresco to the Duchy of Cornwall. He told me that the islanders had had a very rough time in olden days trying to make a living out of fishing and shipbuilding, but that it wasn't until the bulb industry started that they became prosperous. Now they export about 700 tons every spring, and in each ton there are about 7,000 bunches of flowers.

He then began to let himself go on the subject of the sea. 'You know the Bishop Rock', he said, 'it's the eighth wonder of the world. It's not only the most graceful lighthouse, but it's about the strongest. It is seventy feet up from the water to the door and that door is made of solid brass six inches thick. It's just like a Chubb safe, and yet I've known that brass door, in spite of its height above the water, clean bashed in by a single wave. Yes, Sir, this Scillonian sea can be rough. I've seen the *Mauretania* dance past the Scilly like a pea on a hot grid. And the worse the sea grows the more the French fishing-boats stand up to it. They're grand navigators', he went on, 'I remember the *Ile de France* coming almost on to the rocks in a dense fog and then backing out as perfectly as she had come in. If she had veered fifty yards either side she'd have gone under'.

He told me of wreck upon wreck that he had himself seen, and a very queer story of five Dutch merchantmen being lured out of Falmouth and blown up during the War, a story that Kipling would have appreciated. He turned with bewildering rapidity from one topic to another. At one moment he was talking of the Mumford family Bible which was dated 1495, 'And both the Bodleian and that chap in Philadelphia, Rosenbach, have seen it'. The next he was describing his meeting with T. E. Lawrence. 'And', says the Colonel, 'of course I'll sign your autograph album so long as I can sign myself Aircraftsman Shaw. I'll never sign myself Colonel again!'

The forty-mile voyage was all too short, spent in the society of a man who had a story to tell of everything that we passed. I learned of the extreme comfort of life on the Seven Stones lightship which holds a crew of seven men, and has an anchor cable two miles long, and of the extreme discomfort of this trip in bad weather. 'It once took us eleven hours', he said, 'and most of the women were in hysterics. And though I've never been ill in my life I wouldn't go through that again if you were to give me all the islands'.

For my part I shall always be willing to risk this passage, for these happy islands exert a quite magical fascination over me. It is partly their minuteness—I told you they were Lilliput; partly their climate—they get all the sun that's going; partly their pleasant spoken courteous people—they obviously like visitors; partly because they are ideal islands if you like pottering about in boats watching sea-birds; and most of all because they smell so sweet.

Troy Town maze on St. Agnes, which is said to be 300 years old

Photographs: R. G. Foyle

Many counties *claim* to be the Garden of England: the Isles of Scilly come very close to my idea of the Garden of Eden.

Out of Doors

Some Well-Tried Novelties

By JASON HILL

The first of a new series of articles by the author of 'The Curious Gardener', who last year contributed to our columns some interesting comments on out-of-the-way gardening topics. Mr. John Nash will again illustrate Mr. Hill's articles

SINCE Adam ate the apple in Eden with such far-reaching results, succeeding gardeners have been inclined to temper their curiosity with caution and to be suspicious of new plants, however warmly they are recommended. There are, it is true, many gardeners, both amateur and professional, who welcome any new plant and try it out, to the great benefit of gardening, but most are so conservative that a really good new plant often takes from ten to fifteen years to become a common or garden one.

New plants are mistrusted not only because they are unfamiliar, but also, I think, because they usually bear a botanical name, from which some amateur gardeners oddly infer that they must be difficult to grow. It may be noted, for example, that *Rosa Moyesii*, which received an Award of Merit in 1908, is still a stranger to many rose-growers who gave an immediate welcome to 'Mermaid', although the later arrival is a first cross with a wild rose and owes much of its charm and beauty to its Chinese parent *Rosa bracteata*. 'Mermaid' would be included in any general list of first-class plants of recent introduction, but it has already taken its deserved place in gardens, and it does not call for attention as much as those new plants which have been tried, but, for some reason, are not trusted.

Rosa Moyesii was discovered about forty years ago by Mr. A. E. Pratt on the Chinese-Tibetan frontier. The curious deep crimson of its thick petals, suffused with a trace of brown and purple, and set off by the pale greyish brown stamens, is, I think, a colour unique in hardy plants, and everyone admires it. The long flask-shaped hips in matt lacquer red, are scarcely less striking and admirable than the flowers. In its own country it grows out of low undergrowth and its stems reach upward, sometimes to 15 or 20 feet, and where, on account of this habit, it is difficult to accommodate the plant in a small garden, we can turn for the same coloured flowers to its more compact hybrid with *Rosa Omiensis*.

Rosa Moyesii

Drawing by John Nash

A novelty in most gardens, but one which should be found in all, is *Viburnum Carlesii*; it comes from the foggy islands off the coast of Corea and flowered in ours for the first time in 1906; it is now being adequately described in catalogues, and its exquisite aromatic scent has been reproduced by a perfumer, so that we need not dwell on its pink-flushed waxen beauty, but can afford to note its shortcomings—a tendency for its leaves to be curled up by green fly, for which a tar-distillate spray is the remedy, and a slightly dowdy appearance in summer, for which it will be forgiven.

Our oldest novelty is *Osmanthus Delavayi*, for one seed of it germinated in France in 1890; yet it is less widely known than the others, although there should be a place in every garden for this evergreen bush of stiff, Chinese design, with its dark, box-like leaves which, in early Spring, set off their snowfall of milk-white, Daphne-scented flowers. It requires only protection from east winds and it flowers without fail from earliest youth.

Meconopsis Baileyi, the Blue Tibetan Poppy, is a comparatively recent novelty, for it was collected by Captain Kingdon Ward in 1924, but it is already on the way to become a popular plant; at least, it is well known, and if it is not seen as often as its good qualities deserve, this is, perhaps, because it is usually listed among Alpine plants and the purchaser naturally puts it in the rock garden, but its home is in woods and damp meadows, and in many rock gardens it dies of drought. Yet it can be grown in any garden if it is given a deep porous soil (by digging in, if required, a liberal amount of leaf-mould or peat) and never allowed to dry out in the summer. As a woodlander it will tolerate a good deal of shade. Since it belongs to the Poppy family its flowers will not be expected to last long on the plant, but, like most fugacious flowers, they will remain expectantly in beauty for several days if the buds are picked as soon as they are opening—before the insects have had time to fertilise them—and are allowed to open in water. We may be told that we ought to call it *Meconopsis betonicifolia var. Baileyi*, but few are likely to do so, and, in fact, there is every prospect that it will be restored to its discoverer, Captain Bailey, as a true species, since it is sharply distinguished by its hairy capsule from its Chinese relative, *M. betonicifolia*.

Another blue-flowered plant, *Gentiana sino-ornata*, enjoys the same popularity and suffers a high death rate, probably for the same reason, for it is a plant of the brookside and moist Alpine meadows. It is a more refined flower than the rather rococo *Gentiana acaulis*, for its luminous blue is set off by panels of pale fawn and purplish black; and all it needs to set it running like a Speedwell is a light lime-free soil which is never allowed to get dry. Where these conditions are not provided by Nature they can be supplied with the help of sand, leaf-mould and the watering-can, for luckily the Gentian does not object to moderately hard water.

The bed made for the Blue Poppy and the Gentian provides the conditions required for the newest of our novelties, *Phlox adsurgens*, which comes from the Cascade Mountains of Oregon and, like *Gentiana sino-ornata*, runs rooting as it goes, but throws up showers of coral-pink flowers (a rare colour in the garden) which are starred in the centre with white and crimson. It begins to flower at the beginning of June and continues till the first flowers of the Gentian open in September.

The Blue Poppy and the Gentian have been appreciated more quickly than most novelties, probably because true blue is a passport to popularity in the garden; for example, *Lithospermum prostratum*, 'Heavenly Blue', on its double advantage

of colour and a familiar name, was taken straight to the heart of the gardening public as soon as it was introduced, though it is by no means easy to grow. It is therefore surprising that *Ceratostigma Willmottianum*, the only other hardy shrub with blue flowers, is still greeted as a novelty, for it was collected by E. H. Wilson in China thirty-five years ago. Its flowers of cobalt blue are produced from July until the frost comes to bronze its leaves, and it is seen to best advantage at the foot of a south wall, for though it is quite hardy it is liable to be cut back in exposed situations, with the result that it flowers later on the new-made wood.

Caryopteris Mastacantha, which has been in and out of cultivation, and a kind of perpetual novelty, since it was introduced by Robert Fortune in 1844, has recently come in again and made itself more widely known by acquiring the alluring but misleading name of 'the Blue Spirea'; it is not quite reliably hardy, especially on heavy soils, but the advertisement it has provided for its family will probably establish in gardens another lately introduced member of it, *Caryopteris tangutica*, which is hardy and is a good plant for any garden, for it is a late-flowering shrub rather like a small, refined *Ceanothus* in its bluish violet flowers, but its leaves, to which the Chinese attribute important but unspecified medicinal virtues, have a sharp, refreshing fragrance in which there is a suggestion of Sweetbriar and Lavender.

The next novelty is one in category only, for *Iris fimbriata* has long been well known in the greenhouse and has only recently become a garden plant in the form of 'Ledger's Variety'; but it is not quite clear whether we have here a new variety, imported, some say, from the garden of the British Legation at Tokio, or whether Mr. Ledger ('St. Ledger' in a recent catalogue) has taught us that *Iris fimbriata*, though it belongs to the rather capricious Evansia section, is an easy-going plant for the foot of a south wall. Its crimped and fringed flowers, in white dappled with lavender and gold, are arranged with a kind of deliberate grace at rather wide intervals on the stem, and every bud will open in water. It flowers in May, most freely in a poor soil, and since it increases rapidly, it should be divided every two or three years.

Those who would like a good new plant with which to finish the year that began with *Viburnum Carlesii* will find in *Lonicera pileata Yunnanensis* a graceful dwarf evergreen shrub which will be studded in November with translucent violet berries, like amethyst beads, a strange beauty that has been obscured by its false name, which associates it with that dull, merely useful ground-coverer *Lonicera pileata*, and by a further confusion with the evergreen Privet *Ligustrum ionandrum*, which it resembles in leaf and habit of growth; the true name of our plant is probably *Lonicera ligustrina*.

Summer Pruning of Fruit Trees

By A. N. RAWES

WHEN you prune any tree in summer, shorten only the young side shoots or laterals. Don't cut back the 'leader' shoots at all—that is, the long new shoot right at the end of a branch, the terminal growth that extends the branch. You should leave 'leader' shoots severely alone until the time for winter pruning comes round. Remember that, because it's important. You will see how simple and straightforward summer pruning is when I tell you that with the apple and pear trees—whether you grow them as bushes or pyramids, as cordons or espaliers or half-standards—all that you have to do now is to shorten every long side or lateral shoot to within about 4 or 5 big leaves of their base. Work along each branch in turn and cut back every young side shoot to about 5 leaves—and snip off every piece of dead or diseased growth you find. It is best to use secateurs or a small knife for the job, for if you try and break or tear off the shoots you will snap off whole spurs or dislodge a lot of good fruit.

Deal with the red and white currant bushes—but not the black currants—in the way I have suggested for the apples and pears—that is, shorten all the laterals to about 5 leaves. Don't cut back any young shoots on the black currants, for this year's growth will bear the fruit next summer. Prune your black currants in summer, but not until you have picked all the berries—and then cut several of the old branches clean out and leave all the long strong young shoots full length. When you come to the gooseberry bushes, treat them like the red currants but not quite so severely. On these, shorten to about 4 or 5 leaves only the crowded, spindly, and unhealthy side shoots, and wherever there is room leave a few sturdy young shoots practically full length; just nip off the soft shoot-tips. This treatment is more than ever necessary if your gooseberries are plagued with the very prevalent mildew disease—the trouble which disfigures the berries with patches of a grey-brown 'fur' or mould and smothers the young shoots with white mildew. The pruning will remove most of the diseased growth, but be specially careful to burn all the pieces you cut off. Don't let them drop to the ground—and when that's been done, pick off and burn the mildewed berries.

The plum and gage trees answer to much the same treatment as I have outlined for gooseberries; you shorten the very long, crowded and awkwardly placed laterals to about 5 leaves; but here and there along a branch leave sturdy young shoots nearly full length. You must leave plenty of strong new growth in the morello cherry and the peach tree, of course, for that is the wood to carry the fruit next season. Leave in all the healthy, well-placed young growths you can find room for, shortening to about four leaves only the crowded and awkward-growing pieces.

A few weeks after the pruning, you may find that some of the shoots you have shortened are starting into new growth. If that happens, pinch it off immediately. Don't let the pruned shoots make any late or secondary growth at all.

Now a word about the strawberries. I expect there's some cutting to do on these. The masses of runners which the plants have sent out must be clipped off. Propagate some runners from the best plants you have; if you want to raise fresh plants for a new bed, or to fill up gaps, by all means, but if you do this, layer no more than four, or at the most five, runners from any one plant—and then cut off all the surplus runners at once.

Most of the apple and pear and plum trees are carrying very heavy crops. There is serious trouble and disappointment ahead unless something is done to relieve them. I hope you have already done some fruit thinning. The drought has thinned the crops a good deal, I expect, but still, in lots of gardens, the trees are burdened with far more fruit than it is safe to leave. Overcropping is bad enough in a normal year, but in a dry season like this the overladen trees are terribly handicapped—and unless you are careful they will suffer for it. On the apple and pear trees thin down each bunch of three or four or five fruits to one sound specimen. Don't leave the fruits in couples even, except perhaps the early maturing codlin apples and stewing pears. On the best dessert varieties and on very young and weakly trees, do much more than that—space out the single fruits at least 6 or 8 inches apart all along each branch. It may be a tiresome job to thin out the crowded plums and gages, but where there is a full crop it ought to be done, or there is bound to be a lot of fruit dropping and the remainder of the crop will never finish properly. To get dessert plums of good size and quality, thin down the crowded fruits to at least three or four inches apart as soon as you can; though on the strong-growing culinary varieties you might leave them more thickly, making a generous reduction in a few weeks, as soon as the biggest fruits are fit for use in the kitchen. Even after the necessary thinning is done, it may be necessary to take the strain off the weighted branches with stout props—the slightest breakage or even cracking in the bark is an open door to the deadly silver leaf disease.

I find the simplest and best way to support the branches is to fix a centre pole in the ground close against the tree stem and projecting a foot or so above the highest branch. Tie the pole to the stem for extra security and then string up each long branch to the top of the pole—maypole fashion.

Finally, I advise you very strongly to collect and burn all the small fruits that drop to the ground. Do this regularly—for lots of them are harbouring some of the most troublesome of all pests and diseases and the sooner they are on the bonfire, the better.

Religion

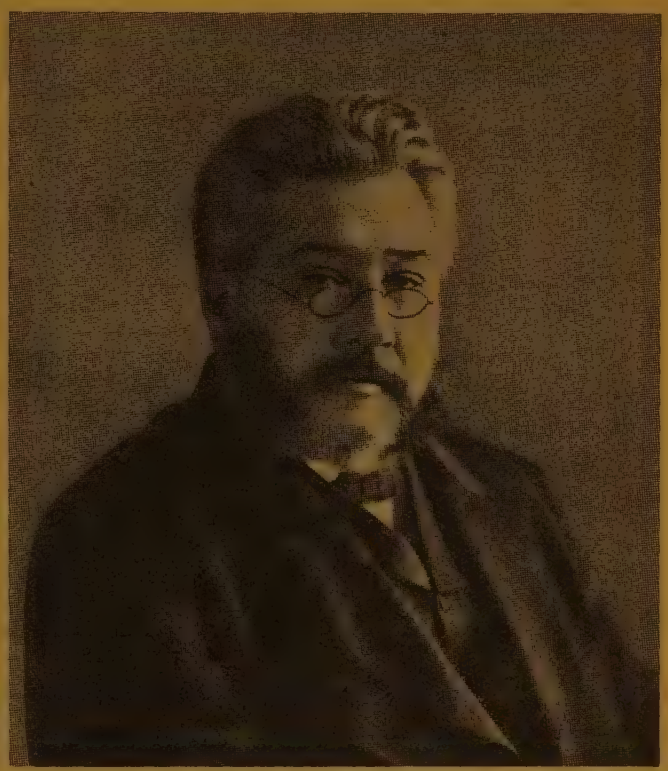
C. H. Spurgeon as I Knew Him

By J. C. CARLILE

The Rev. J. C. Carlile is Minister of the Folkestone Baptist Church and Editor of the 'Baptist Times'

THE little village of Kelvedon, Essex, where Spurgeon was born, just a hundred years ago, boasted an Independent Chapel with a manse of its own, and a study. Spurgeon, as a child, played in the study and learned to read from books describing the conflicts of the soul.

He was an apt student and did well at school. At fifteen he was a pupil teacher; at seventeen he was teaching in an academy at Cambridge and seriously considering starting a private school of his own. The principal of the academy wrote to his father that 'Charles could certainly pass the necessary examinations for a degree'. But Spurgeon saw two obstacles: Dissenters were not admitted to University degrees, and he had too much teaching experience to have any faith in their value.



Charles Haddon Spurgeon

After his conversion he tramped eight miles from Newmarket to Isleham Ferry, and was baptised in the open river on his mother's birthday in 1850. He preached in the villages and became lay pastor of the old chapel at Waterbeach. The countryside was alive with his fame and soon the village was thronged on Sundays. But London was his destiny, and he came to preach at the Baptist Chapel, New Park Street, near London Bridge. The Church Officers could not have attached much importance to his visit; they put him up for the week-end at a third-rate boarding house in Bloomsbury, where he listened to the banter of well-intentioned young gentlemen who were 'something' in the City. They were amused at his appearance and his baggy trousers. He was John Bull, a countryman on a first visit to London. On the Sunday morning when Spurgeon ascended the pulpit stairs of the cathedral-like building, the small congregation didn't know that the prince of British orators was ascending his throne. They watched him with mild curiosity. His voice attracted attention, it had winsome charm and flute-like music, and his face, which was heavy in repose, was transfigured when speaking. The sleepy eyes became eloquent talking eyes. He was dramatic to his finger tips. In the evening the congregation was larger than it had been for years, and at the close of the day the problem of the ministry of the Church was settled. Spurgeon had found his life's work.

London was taken by storm by the boy from the country, and the Gospel upon his lips became new and good news to the outside man. New Park Street Chapel was too small for the crowds that came, the street was blocked an hour before the time of service, and Exeter Hall in the Strand was taken, with the same result. Then it was announced that on Sunday morning Spurgeon would preach at the Surrey Gardens Music Hall. The building seated twelve thousand people. London rubbed its eyes. Wasn't it sacrilege to hold public worship in a music-hall? But the seats were filled and thousands of people failed to obtain admission. While Spurgeon was reading the scriptures a tragedy happened. There was a cry of 'Fire!' and in the horrible stampede that followed seven persons were killed and many seriously injured. The preacher had a nervous breakdown, but when he was better he returned to the Surrey Gardens and for years preached in the music-hall to the largest regular congregation ever assembled in London. The Tabernacle with its six thousand seats was built for Spurgeon's ministry, and Sunday by Sunday for more than thirty years it was filled.

I remember him very well as I first saw him, leaning heavily upon his stick, a man of medium height but looking rather short because of his girth, with a heavy jaw which reminded me of his mother's words: 'It's a good thing that boy was brought to the Lord; he might have been very bad'.

Spurgeon was a great lover of animals, particularly horses and dogs. At one time he had three pugs: Punch, Judy and little Gyp, and I remember once when we were sitting in his study at Westwood talking over a new enterprise, he suddenly said: 'We will pray about it'. At that moment Judy became restless. He said: 'Punch and Judy, come here; master is going to pray'. The dogs came close to his feet and settled down with bowed heads. I was too amused to do anything but smile. When Spurgeon opened his eyes he said, 'Yes, they are very funny. The Lord must love humour or He never would have made pugs'.

His publications were 'best-sellers' during many seasons. The publication of a sermon each week was continued for years after his death. A single issue would sometimes total from a quarter to half a million sales. He was often caricatured and his humour criticised. But humour was natural to him. He used to say, 'There's hope for a faith that can laugh'.

Spurgeon was a pioneer of popular education. He started a day school for poor children twenty years before State schools were set up. There were no Polytechnic or evening classes when he began free education in the rooms at the Tabernacle, and classes in the evenings were held in elementary subjects, natural science and book-keeping. The largest classes in shorthand were the free classes he instituted.

The Pastors' College he founded has trained over fourteen hundred ministers. Do you know the Stockwell Orphanage? If not, you ought to pay a visit. The Orphanage began with a gift of £20,000 by a lady. I shall never forget seeing Spurgeon seated in a big armchair surrounded by healthy boys and girls listening to his wondrous stories with open-eyed amazement. While the children rocked with laughter his lips were drawn in pain. Only two or three of those present knew that his knees and elbows were bandaged in lint soaked in iodine to deaden the pain. The Orphanage has cared for over five thousand children, the majority belonging to parents connected with the Church of England.

He might have been a wealthy man but for his generosity. Twice he received public testimonials of between five and six thousand pounds each, but he insisted that the whole of the money should go to charity. He died at Mentone in 1892. His funeral was a national tribute. The procession of mourners was more than two miles in length. Over eighty thousand people attended the memorial services.

Spurgeon was one of the greatest orators England has known. He was more than a prince of preachers, and among the great revivalists of the world.

Points from Letters

Owing to the pressure upon its space, THE LISTENER *is able to publish only a selection from the correspondence which it receives. Correspondents are asked to write briefly and to the point, and are reminded that name and address must always be given, even where their publication is not desired.* THE LISTENER, *of course, undertakes no responsibility for the views expressed in these columns.*
Preference will be given to letters which do not employ a nom-de-plume

Broadcasts to Schools

At a recent excellent demonstration of school broadcasting arranged and produced by officials of the B.B.C., I heard it suggested by a teacher present that the B.B.C. should publish their syllabus of broadcast lessons at least two years in advance, in order that schemes of work could be prepared along the same lines. I venture to suggest that very few teachers, particularly specialist teachers, would care to think that another member of his profession was imposing his schemes of work upon him, so why suggest that the teaching profession would acquiesce in such action by the Central Council for School Broadcasting? One of the finest characteristics of our system of education is the freedom it allows the individual teacher. Curtail that freedom, and you must inevitably cramp the teacher's individuality. Surely every teacher can 'get his subject across' best by stressing in his scheme of work those aspects of it which make the greatest appeal to him. If the above suggestion were carried out we should at once have made many strides towards the State-dictated syllabuses of several continental countries.

I was pleased to hear stressed in the same meeting the point that the Central Council intends the broadcast lessons solely as supplementary illustrative material. May they continue to do so, and if they require further help from the body of the teaching profession I suggest that they take an annual census of proposed schemes of work, and arrange their courses to illustrate the greatest number in the best way they can.

Manchester H. C. THOMAS

[*We should be glad to publish further correspondence on this subject*—EDITOR, THE LISTENER]

Poison Gas

I am pleased to see that Major Paul Murphy has endeavoured in your columns to tell the truth about poison gas in relation to the air menace. Following upon Mr. Wickham Steed's recent revelations of German theory, if not of German practice, Major Murphy's article seems to me of profound interest. Those who now talk of League of Nations defence by the instrumentality of 'interceptor planes and scouts' must realise how slender are the hopes of national safety if these be the only instruments upon which we can rely. Methods of barbarism will either destroy the peoples of the world or must themselves be destroyed. It is for this nation now to decide upon which course it will embark.

London, S.W. 7 MAX PEMBERTON

Your contributor on 'The Truth About Poison Gas', at the conclusion of his gibes at alarmists 'in these days of mass hysteria', and his generally lighthearted remarks on the smells, tastes, etc., of poison gases, says of the menace of aerial gas attacks: 'There are two lines of defence against it—a powerful defending air force . . . and an anti-gas organisation designed to evict the invisible garrison'. Without embarrassing Major Murphy by inquiring what he means by a 'powerful'—or, for that matter, 'defending'—air force (since both terms are so elastic), I should like to suggest a third line of defence, the only one certain of success: a deliberate policy of avoiding war *at any price*, instead of this growing acceptance of the inevitability of future lunacy. Even if the poison gases described by Major Murphy are only likely to cause us some inconvenience, the future of aerial warfare in general is not pleasant to contemplate, in spite of talk of a 'powerful air force'.

Hereford E. R. WOOD

Major P. Murphy's article in your issue of June 27 has greatly interested the Air League. Much harm has been done by people who suggest, possibly with truth, that forty tons of lethal gas will wipe out London, without explaining the conditions necessary for its effective use. For example, arsenic compound gases require heat for their development, which means that of the total bomb-load a considerable portion must be taken up by the heat-producing element, and then when dropped the bomb must not break up or the heat element and the poison element will be parted; nor must the bomb bury itself in the ground where its heavy fumes would have little effect. When one considers these and other facts, it is a matter of reasonable calculations to ascertain that no more than 1 per cent. of the total bomb load will be reproduced in the form of a lethal concentration of gas.

To Major Murphy's remarks as to the use of mustard gas I have nothing to add, but is it not at least reasonable to suppose that a nation attacking us would seek for our Achilles' heel, and is that not to be found in our marine commerce, in or near our docks? If the ports of a country depending on sea-borne supplies can be closed, is it wise to divert some of the limited attacking force to attempt to terrorise a steady-minded people with a vesicant liquid?

J. A. CHAMIER
Secretary-General, Air League of the British Empire

The civilian population will doubtless be calmed—if not cheered—by Major Paul Murphy's reassurance as to the effects of poison gas. Hours spent in cellars and dug-outs, dressed in gas-masks, which appear so attractive in the pictures, promise the safety which is all we are supposed to think of. It is consoling, of course, to know that the destruction of all life going on elsewhere is caused by two gases instead of ten or twenty. What is a little puzzling to those who are accustomed to look at the world as a whole, is how a weapon which is to be so little harmful to us is to be sufficiently deadly to the enemy to justify the expense and labour connected with its production and use. Will not the enemy be snug in cellars, dug-outs and gas-masks? We know that all preparations for war are for defence; but how do we rain poison gas on the air fleet which is dropping it on us? No doubt with careful education we may attain Major Murphy's Olympian detachment on the subject of bombs and gases, and perhaps reach that of Pooh-bah—'Something humorous with boiling oil'.

Chelsea Y. A. M.

Major Murphy mentions the attempts made by various organisations to emphasise the deadly menace of poison gas. Even so, I consider that its dangers cannot be over-emphasised and the need for organised defence of the civilian population is urgently necessary. The demoralising effect on a community totally unprepared would be enormous, not necessarily from the effects of the gas, but from fear, originated by ignorance of the properties of poison gases. For instance, in an aerial attack of mustard gas on a cold night, the gas (then in liquid form) would not make itself known for some time, and by that time its menace could have travelled far, by being carried on clothes, boots, etc. On the weather becoming warmer the liquid would vapourise, causing the results mentioned by Major Murphy. The gas, being heavier than air, would lie in cellars, etc., where the average person would seek shelter during an air raid: also it has a delayed effect, there being no immediate symptoms except where actual contact with the liquid is experienced, thus rendering it doubly dangerous. I have mentioned only one gas; there are many, each having a different effect, but nevertheless it shows how deadly the effects can be if the public are kept in ignorance of methods of protection against gas. Could not the various County and Borough Councils arrange a series of lectures on the properties of gases, uses of respirators and methods of detection? The project would cost very little and its value, practically and morally, would be enormous.

London, S.E.25 ARTHUR J. W. FOX

Traffic in Drugs and in Arms

We wonder how many people when listening to Russell Pasha's talk on the Drug Traffic were led to question what seems to us a parallel case—the question of traffic in armaments. How many would have rejoiced had the first paragraph read: 'It is now five years since the Governments of the Nations really set to work to tackle the ghastly menace of the Traffic in Arms that threatened to destroy the peoples of the world', etc.?

One outstanding factor seems to be the ready response and help rendered to the Central Narcotics Intelligence Bureau by any particular government in whose country such trafficking

was found. Russell Pasha also implied that individuals and small groups of people seem to have been at the source of supplies of these drugs. Has it not been shown in an authentic pamphlet issued by the Union of Democratic Control, that groups of armament manufacturers are responsible for the world's unlimited supply of arms, and are guilty of methods as insidious as those employed by the trafficker in drugs?

It is not our intention to decry the work done by this Bureau, but to suggest that if the various governments are sincere in their reiterated statements that they wish to avoid war, like methods be employed in searching out the root of the trouble and, in the words employed in the recent talk, 'getting public opinion dead set against this foul traffic, which causes such infinite and terrible suffering'. We wonder whether the 'suffering' is any more intense from the effect of drugs than from unbearable social and economic conditions. Give the East a decent standard of living and it will no more wish to resort to drugs (and less so if they are not thrust upon it) than the West will wish to resort to war.

J. C. J.
New Malden M. L. K.

Legacy of the War

I read with much interest the 'Time to Spare!' series—but the selected men who describe their respective experiences are apparently fit to work—no mention yet has been made of men like myself, who returned to work after active service and broke down entirely through 'war strain'. We have lost our jobs and health, we are unemployable, and there is no provision for our particular injuries in the present pensions scheme.

Newhaven JOHN G. BANFIELD

Helping the Unemployed

The Master of Balliol stressed the need for personal service for the unemployed on the part of those more fortunately placed. He said it is only in this way that the baffling problem of unemployment can be tackled. But except in so far as he pointed out that a voluntary worker in personal touch with an unemployed person can bridge the gap between what officially ought to be done and what is often actually done by the Labour Exchange and the Public Assistance Committee, I do not see that he has given us any direction we can follow with real hope. Occupational Centres are doing wonderful work, but it is 'hospital' work only. It isn't anything that can be *permanent* for a particular unemployed man or woman. One of the most tragic talks in this series was that of the young man Mr. Divers, haunted by the thought of what he had to return to when his three months were up. His three months were a 'holiday'. They have not solved for him the problem of how he is going to earn his living in the future. And that is the real problem—whether one for the Government to tackle or not is hard to say.

I have a nephew of twenty-five, trained in business administration, who has had no settled work for over three years. Recently he had a clerical job for two months—a poor enough sort—but it brought in 30s. a week, which is quite princely, if one has been living on 15s. 3d. for a year or more, with an occasional 2s. 6d. or 5s. earned by story-writing. He has paid 8s. for a bedroom and lived on 7s. During the two months he was earning, he saved to replace underwear; and was saving for a new suit when he was told a girl of seventeen was to take his place. He doesn't want an Occupational Centre. He has plenty of interests. What he desires, and all others like him, is to earn a living, to have a normal life, to marry and have a home and children. How are individual people to bring that about for their relatives, or for those with whom they make contact? That, I repeat, is the problem. And the Master of Balliol gave us no lead.

Cheadle Hulme X

It seems hardly necessary to set up a new organisation in order to link up families in the South and North. The officials of the Occupational Centres in the distressed areas will almost always be willing to make the arrangements. May I suggest, however, that cases of severe distress, including under-nourishment of adults, overcrowding, lack of sufficient clothing and boots both for adults and children, and many of the distressing mental accompaniments of long-continued unemployment, are to be found in large numbers in London and in most southern towns? If these families are 'adopted', through the medium of the local Occupational Centres or in any other way, donors will be able to make personal contacts that are not possible at a distance. Gifts and letters are good; gifts and sympathetic, tactful personal intercourse are far better.

In Croydon we have large numbers of unemployed people from South Wales, Tyneside, Lancashire, and other distressed areas, and no doubt the same condition applies in most other towns near London. Money, clothing, boots and personal service are needed for them, as well as for our own unemployed, so help given locally is often in effect help given to the distressed areas. The individual need is as great, though the mass is fortunately much less.

A. PHILPOTT
Hon. Secretary, Croydon Occupational Centre

I am desired by the members of the Charity Organisation Society to express their profound gratitude to 'A. V.', not only for her letter, published in your issue of June 20, but also for her sustained effort to help an unemployed man and his family, and for giving us the story of that effort.

At our thirty London centres some hundreds of workers undertake the task which 'A. V.' undertook, in some eighteen thousand or so of 'cases' each year. They desire, first, to tell 'A. V.' how true her story rings and to express their sympathy with her in her chagrin and disappointment; second to assure 'A. V.' positively that, happily, the habits, attitudes and reactions of her *protégés* quite definitely do *not* represent the average of London unemployed, nor the average of London casual labourers, nor the average of London unemployed who have ceased to satisfy the Court of Referees that are in the industrial field, and come, in consequence, to depend upon outdoor relief. Next, our workers desire heartily to endorse the finding of 'A. V.' that the reaction of 'rough' people—in this case people indifferent to domestic propriety or sexual irregularity—to generous intervention from outside, even accompanied by a course of instruction in child welfare and a supply of books upon it, is all too often disappointing.

The third point I am desired to annotate is 'A. V.'s' extremely interesting hint that if our social system had been 'altered at its very foundations', her clients would have given to their first child the kind of nurture she tried to teach them, would have kept the immoral sister away, also the immoral lodger and her child, and would themselves have practised birth control. Does 'A. V.' not think that our legislature is trying very hard to effect something of the kind? Under the new Unemployment Act, sections 35-40, it will be the duty of a civil servant to take most drastic steps to prevent any unemployed men to whom he pays allowances behaving as her client did; while all our publicly subsidised housing has for many years included provisions against the disastrous admission of lodgers which she so rightly deplores in her clients. The other steps contemplated by 'A. V.' are doubtless of the nature of eugenics by legislative enactment, *i.e.* the elimination of 'rough' types by prohibiting procreation by them.

J. C. PRINGLE
Secretary, Charity Organisation Society

As a result of the letter I wrote to you with a suggested scheme for helping the families of the unemployed, which you printed in THE LISTENER of June 6, I have received several helpful and encouraging letters from some of your readers. The result is that I have been able to obtain particulars of some very needy families at Rhondda, from the Trealaw Educational Settlement there, and they can supply further names and addresses when these have been allotted, to ladies who are willing to undertake to adopt a family and help them in any way they think advisable. I am told that money must not be sent regularly to a family on unemployment pay, as it has to be counted as income under the Means Test, but an order can be given to a local store to send weekly provisions. This is already being done.

Perhaps some of your readers would be willing to adopt a family in the way I have suggested, and if so, I would be glad if they would write to me and I would forward them particulars of a family to befriend. To give an idea of the hardships of these families, I have the address of one, whose weekly income (the dole) is £1 15s. 3d., which has to cover all the needs of father, mother and six children, the eldest not yet 14; the weekly rent is 12s. 6d. No comment is needed!

Balsam House, Wincanton (MRS.) VERENA N. PELLY

Along the Roman Roads

In his letter to THE LISTENER of June 20, Mr. H. A. Fry is rather more positive in his statements than I should care to be. He reproves your cartographer for showing an extension of the Roman road westward from Eggardun, crossing the Fosse

Way at Axminster, in these words: 'The invaders journeyed only 10 miles west of Dorchester, and then were faced by an impassable region (in a military sense) of dense forest and marshland . . . .' May I say in reply to this: (i) The latest edition of the Map of Roman Britain (Ordnance Survey, 1928), to whose preparation Mr. Fry makes reference, shows such a road—though in dotted lines, indicating 'Course'—but not existence—'uncertain'; (ii) Codrington describes the road in some detail, much of it sufficiently convincing; (iii) the road is traceable today, by lane and raised causeway through fields, at least as far as Bridport and certainly from Axminster to Exeter.

Mapledurham G. M. BOUMPHREY

Whilst the Dorchester Roman road is fairly well-known, the one that ran through Wimborne Minster is not so well marked. I find, however, that it ran from Hamworthy (Poole) through the village of Lytchett to Corfe Hills (Corfe Mullen) through Lake Farm and then to Eyebridge over the Stour, to Kingston Lacy, near the Park, and on to Badbury Rings. Thence it cut through to Crichel Park, and here there was discovered some years ago a Roman villa, the very beautiful pavement of which is now by the kind permission of Lord Alington exhibited in the British Museum; thence to Sixpenny Handley and on to old Sarum (Salisbury).

Wimborne Minster S. CLEMENT RYLEY

Property and Prosperity

May I have space in your valuable paper to express my agreement with Sir Raymond Unwin that 'any tax on potential capital values will do far more harm than good'. On the other hand, would not taxes assessed, regardless of occupation, on existent site and mineral values, do more good than harm? Would they not make the development and use of land more profitable, and, at the same time, render it much less lucrative to hold plots 'For Sale or To be Let on Long Lease'? For example, would not taxes levied on site values in and around our slums—*e.g.*, taxes based on the prices placed on vacant sites, and sites covered by obsolescent buildings—remove the chief obstacle to housing the working class?

Prestatyn GEORGE ALFRED GOODWIN

Russia Today

Much of Dr. Duggan's article on Russia is based on the remark in his opening sentence that the standard of living in Russia is lower than ours. The result is the patronising attitude of his last sentence wherein he states that Russian methods would be hopeless with our 'intelligent and liberty-loving people'. But I question this assumption of his about the comparative standards of living. It is impossible to make a fair comparison between Russia and Britain because this country is not an economic unit. Dr. Duggan is comparing a whole with a part. He has overlooked the fact that we obtain raw materials—cotton, rubber, oil, foodstuffs, etc.—from our colonies at remarkably low prices, and that those colonies also provide us with an invaluable market. Without the cheap labour of the 420 million colonial workers, our standard of living would be less than one-third of what it is. Russia, on the other hand, has no cheap colonial labour. All her workers share in the wealth of the Union. I have not the figures by me at the moment but I have seen it computed that the standard of living of the British Empire is considerably less than half that of the U.S.S.R.

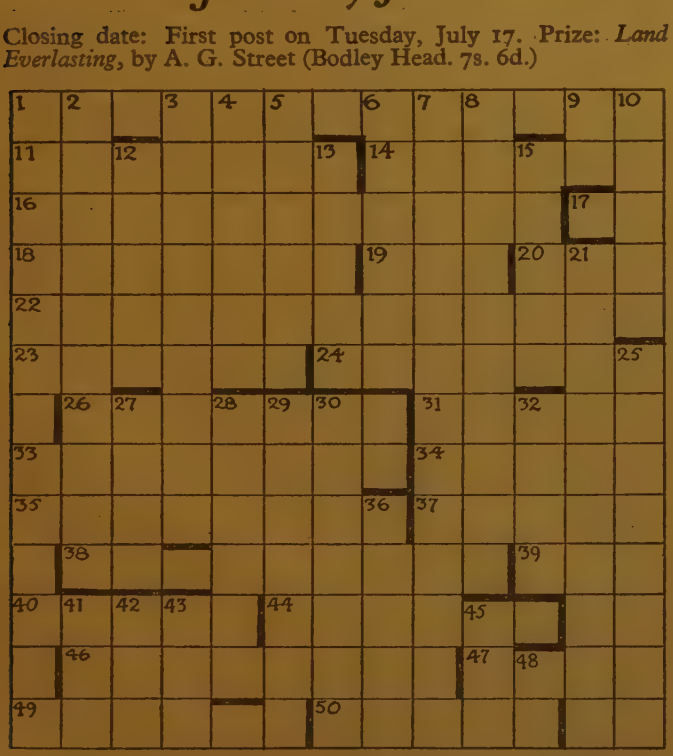
I should also like to amplify Dr. Duggan's statement that 'the machine is the God of present-day Russia', by passing on a story told me this Spring by Pudovkin, the Russian film-producer. He was making a film in one of the large factories outside Moscow when one of the machinists came up to him and said: 'Look here, Comrade Pudovkin, you have given us films of machines, of flashing bobbins, of the thunder of steel-hammers, the whirring of pistons, and the blinding light of furnaces. We all agree that machines are the basis of our great Socialist construction, but don't you see that all the noise and clatter and flashing lights is just what we want to eliminate? We must have machines by all means, but don't make a religion of their imperfections. Another thing, Comrade Pudovkin. You teach us, as Marxists, that the old-fashioned division of labour between industrial life and farm life is to be left behind. We have built agro-industrial cities in the middle of our collective farms, but why do you intellectuals still lag behind? Your films are either about factories or farms; one or the other. What you should do is to try and show us workers how the two are being brought together'. This, Pudovkin remarked, is only one instance of how the workers are educating and directing their own leaders. It is not true to say with Dr. Duggan that the Russian makes a god of the machine. On the contrary, for the first time in history man has learnt how to master and control machine production in the interests of the majority.

Kings Lynn JOHN PEARSE

Crossword No. 226

Greek. By Janus

Closing date: First post on Tuesday, July 17. Prize: *Land Everlasting*, by A. G. Street (Bodley Head. 7s. 6d.)



NAME AND ADDRESS.....

CLUES—ACROSS

(1) and (11). Might be seen at the Trooping of the Colour? (14) The Hog's Back. (16) What the Argive lion did (two words). (17) See (6). (18) Might be found near (45). (19) See (9). (20 rev.) Sap, obviously. (22) Beginning of an elevating school imposition (three words). (23) See (10). (24) *Goes with the rich man to the bourn of death. (26)**Description of a Japanese soldier on the mainland (ghastly pun). (31) **A saying, probably pithy. (33) See (46). (34) Head of the tortured. (35) Welsh *pedwar*. (37) A genitive subdivision. (38) Accused island women. (39) **A curve of the body. (40) The Greeks found this uncomfortable in the siege of Troy (but dative). (44) and (48). Where the neighbours of the Tyndaridae started from. (46) Quality displayed by (33). (47) and (42 rev.) *A sample of (40) might be described as this genitive. (49) Suggests the Regency period (acc.) in England. (50) The king-bee of Artemis.

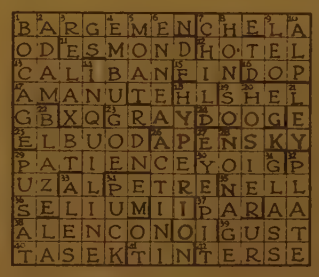
DOWN

(1) κραννη. (2) Broadcast recently. (3) *Aphrodite, presumably. (4) A muddled waggonette. (5) In law. (6) and (17) νεοφονοι anagram. (7) Drawing up in echelon. (8) Nymphs. (9) and (19) Hardly to be found on (14). (10) Confession inapplicable to (23). (12 rev.) Euripides calls this torrential (but acc.). (13 rev.) and (17) A temple. (15 rev.) *ποια δε —— φρατερων προσδεξεται; (21) **I work a grammatical miracle. (25) *γενναν —— Θηβαις καλλιστον ονειδος. (27) 'Sucks!' (28) μειζον βοᾳ των —— (proverb). (29) If sleep was always this, as well as in Theocritus, it would be all right. (30 rev.) Not the cotton-tree. (32) One of Socrates' favourite words in this case. (36) Would describe the subject of (16). (41) Pshaw in Hebrew. (42 rev.) See (47). (43) An Indian. (45) See (18). (48) See 44.

*Last letter missing. **Last two letters missing.

Report on Crossword No. 224

Only one competitor knew for certain that Lewis Carroll's 'Manlet' referred to his 'Wifelet' as a 'sweet ATOM', though MOAT was offered as an alternative by one or two more; nearly all put MOAN, the anagram of MONA. Hood's PETER FIN caused trouble, many putting PETERKIN; Kipling's PUSAT TASEK was not too well-known, and several alternatives were offered for the 'wee PARTIN'. The reference in 22 Down was to the line in Thomson's *Summer* immediately following that used in 'Gemini', yet most competitors missed it! Quotation marks were not used in the clue, and we can therefore accept the alternatives, FLAME, FLARE and GLARE. Two competitors only succeeded in avoiding all these difficulties, W. A. Jesper (Haxby) and G. B. Newport (Halifax). (*For Notes see page vii*)



On Foreign Bookstalls—IV

What Spain is Reading

By A. PASTOR

Dr. Pastor is Cervantes Professor of Spanish Language and Literature in the University of London, King's College

THE first impression which we receive when talking to the average intelligent Spaniard, let us say a professional man of some culture but not in any way a specialist, or visit one of the large bookshops in Madrid, Barcelona, Bilbao, Seville or some provincial capital, is that the Spanish public is quite definitely turning away from the purely imaginative novel. I believe that the decadence of the type of novel characteristic of the nineteenth century is a widespread feature of contemporary, as distinct from recent, literature, and perhaps the enormous proportions of some modern novels in France and Germany suggest, precisely by their volume, such a decadence. The Byzantine-Greek novel and the Romances of Chivalry, for instance, become longer and longer the nearer they approached extinction. Forgive me this general reflection, which I think is essential if we want to understand what the average Spaniard is reading and the reasons of his choice—a point of some importance, since Spain often has a prophetic faculty.

What has taken the place of this class of novel? I think, generally speaking, a great interest in history, more especially recent history, the history of the last hundred years, often in the form of the historical novel. It seems as if the novel is gathering new strength from its association with recent history, but in form, style and conception this novel has, of course, very little to do with the historical novel of the romantic period. These interpretations of the past are not romantic tableaux in the manner of Bulwer Lytton or even Sir Walter Scott. But it remains a remarkable fact that the most unromantic, deliberately—yes, sometimes a little too deliberately—uncouth and monotonous of the great writers of our time, Pío Baroja, should have written a whole series of very successful and popular historical novels (no fewer than twenty under the general title of *Memorias de un hombre de acción*) which follow on the even vaster series (forty-six under the general title of *Episodios nacionales*) by Pérez Galdós, the novelist of the nineteenth century who is most closely allied to contemporary feeling and outlook. Valle-Inclán also, to whom I shall refer presently, has written a trilogy on the civil wars of the nineteenth century called *La guerra carlista*, and has brought out a number of magnificent tragi-comic novels on the reign of Isabella the Second, the grandmother of the present ex-king, under the title of *El ruedo ibérico*.

The transition from the historical novel to academic history, history in the strict sense of the word, is made by a large number of popular monographs, biography and anecdotic history, in which we may perhaps see an English influence, since English literature, especially modern literature, is distinguished by its biographies and by its tendency to revise the valuation of recent history. I have in mind such a series as *Vidas españolas e hispano-americanas del siglo XIX*, which enjoy a considerable popularity; their relative cheapness, an average price of about three shillings, contributing to this. Some of the works of the Marqués de Villa Urrutia, at one time Spanish Ambassador at the Court of St. James, should also be mentioned in this connection.

Energy in Spain is now very largely taken up, after thirty years of specialised research in different directions, in collecting the results and presenting them in an ordered and æsthetically satisfying form. Many large works of reference are being published and, what is more remarkable, being bought and read; for example, a Universal History, a History of Art of vast proportions and on modern, and, I think, extremely interesting lines, by the doyen of such work in Spain, Don Manuel Cossío, and Sr. Pijoan, the distinguished historian of art. At present two other groups, under the direction of Menéndez Pidal, are engaged in bringing out a History of Spain in sixteen volumes and a History of Spanish Literature of comparable size.

Add to this innumerable publications on prehistory and archæology, some of which are widely read. It is a surprising fact, surprising at least to the average Englishman, that modern education in Spain should be so largely based on the history of architecture and painting rather than on literary and scientific knowledge. I was this morning looking through a short history of Spanish painting, *Breve historia de la pintura española*, by Enrique Lafuente, published in Madrid a few months ago, which is being circulated in thousands of copies; a little book which contains excellent reproductions accompanied by a most competent and interesting exposition and is sold at the price of two shillings. The reason for such publications is, in the opinion of the writer and of those who back such ventures, that painting and architecture are the arts in which Spain has expressed herself as completely as, and in many ages more completely than, in her literature, a point of view which I recommend to the attention of those who find it difficult to escape from a literary routine when teaching modern languages.

I secondly observe that the vacuum left by the purely frivolous novel is filled by what we might call encyclopædic literature. During the last ten years an enormous desire has been felt in Spain to become acquainted with all aspects of modern culture and civilisation, both technical and philosophical. There is, for instance, the *Colección Labor*, one of the most successful undertakings of its kind, which, in a series of several hundred volumes, admirably printed and illustrated, gives a survey of human knowledge from astronomy to the history of Byzantium, from modern political theory to early Christian sculpture, from education to modern Japan. You, of course, in this country have the Home University Library. It is something on those lines, possibly more comprehensive in subject-matter, treatment and choice of authors.

If we move up into less accessible regions, we shall find, for example, that the *Revista de Occidente*, a monthly review of European thought, brings out its own series of books under the characteristic heading of *Ideas del siglo XX*. In this respect Spain, and especially modern Spain, is truly what a modern writer has called *el país de los extranjeros*. Contempt for foreigners is unknown in Spain, for the Spaniard has, on the contrary a—perhaps, originally, truly imperial—feeling that the alien has been specially created to instruct and sometimes to amuse him, with the result that in no country with which I am acquainted does the foreign visitor enjoy such privileges as in Spain, not only a freedom from restrictions unknown in a Europe infested by incompetent bureaucrats, but a real respect and courtesy, applied to persons and to ideas, and often even to those who hardly deserve such consideration. Foreign books are translated in prodigious numbers into Spanish, and if you visit an important bookshop in Madrid or Barcelona you will be surprised by the number of English and especially French and German works displayed. There are popular series of translations—for example, the *Colección Universal*, the volumes of which cost about a shilling and are in the hands of all those who can read.

This does not mean that the Spaniard has turned his back on his country and its traditions. The interest in history and the desire to understand specially the recent history of which he, the modern Spaniard, is the outcome, already contradicts any such interpretation. For the first time during the last hundred years the average Spaniard has the opportunity of reading and understanding the classics of his own country, of reading them in a cheap, well-printed and handy form, of understanding them with the help of concise and accurate notes provided by specialists. I would especially mention the constantly growing collection of *Clásicos Castellanos*, some volumes of which you will see in every bookshop in Spain. It is interesting to note that this, with rare exceptions, excellent group of editions contains not only mediæval texts and the great writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but also such nineteenth-century writers as have a definite claim to the attention of the modern reader.

What I have said so far might suggest that the Spaniard, the romantic animal *par excellence*, has become nothing more than an industrious and worthy citizen, bent on improving himself, but something of a prig and a pedant. Nothing could

be further from the truth, and if you want a proof of this denial notice that not since the Golden Age, perhaps, has there been such a renaissance of lyrical poetry as at present. There are innumerable poets, not only national figures like Antonio Machado, whose *Obras Completas* have been republished in one volume, and Juan Ramón Jiménez, an anthology of whose poems you will find in that popular *Colección Universal* which I have already mentioned, but also others, now well-known in Spain and much read—which is not always the same, especially in the case of poets, as being well-known—like Pedro Salinas (who has just brought out another volume entitled *La voz a tí debida*, containing, at least in my opinion, some lovely examples of his exquisite sensibility), Jorge Guillén, Antonio Espina, Gerardo Diego, Vicente Aleixandre (I specially draw your attention to his difficult but interesting *Espadas como labios*), Federico García Lorca (who has just returned from America covered with glory), Luis Cernuda (whom Madariaga thinks one of the greatest of contemporary poets—I will give you the titles of two of his books, *Perfil del aire* and *La invitación a la poesía*), Rafael Alberti, and the promising Manuel Altolaguirre (who besides his poetry, *Soledades juntas*, has just published a biography of the Renaissance poet Garcilaso de la Vega). If you wish to acquaint yourself with this modern school of poetry, I recommend to you—although I do not agree altogether with the point of view from which the selection has been made—an anthology entitled *Poesía española*, edited by Gerardo Diego and published in Madrid in 1932, which ranges from 1915 to the year of publication, beginning with the veteran Unamuno and ending with Aleixandre, whom I have just mentioned. It is typical of the present situation that this volume, which was brought out by its publishers for educational and philanthropic reasons, anticipating considerable losses, set off, perhaps, by an increase in prestige, has turned out to be the outstanding editorial and financial success of the last two years. In such ways is virtue rewarded.

And now to end up, let me return to the novel. Perhaps many of you expected me to speak only about novels. I have, however, felt myself bound more strictly by the title of this talk—'What Spain is Reading'—and for this reason have relegated the novel to the place it really occupies, that is, to the end. This does not mean that the novel is dead, but that a process of revision and selection is going on which limits the novel to outstanding works which, thus separated from the mountains of rubbish that surround them, acquire new and permanent value. I think it is a fact with which the social historian of the future will have to deal, that much of the leisure which in the past was devoted to the reading of mediocre and downright bad novels, pandering to the wish-fulfilment day-dreams of the fatigued or unimaginative reader, is now employed in going to the cinema, so often infinitely superior to the lower type of fiction. It may be that the consequences of this substitution of the visual image for the printed word will be considerable. But the masters of the contemporary novel are not affected by this; they are now publishing in Spain their collected works which you will find on sale in most places. Ramón del Valle-Inclán, the bearded veteran novelist who has found the strength in middle age to change his manner and to produce one of the most extraordinary Spanish-American tragi-comic novels, *Tirano Banderas*; Pío Baroja, the misanthropic Basque, with his profound contempt for the grammar of the Academy (although he is now a member of the Spanish Academy) and for everything Latin and Mediterranean, but nevertheless, or perhaps precisely for this reason, one of the most popular authors in Spain; Gabriel Miró, no longer with us, whose stylistic exercises are being published by a Society specially formed for the purpose; others, not yet consecrated by national opinion, like the late Prime Minister, Sr. Azaña, whose novel, *El jardín de los frailes*, deals with the scholastic life of El Escorial; the subtle Claudio de la Torre (I recommend to your special attention his *En la vida del Sr. Alegre*); Ramón María Tenreiro, whose *Esclava del Señor* has been translated into English under the title of *The Handmaid of the Lord*.

I have reserved for the last a reference to the writer whom I believe to be the most universal in his appeal, the most profound in his thought and, what I consider in the highest degree important, the most classically Spanish, in spite, or perhaps precisely because, of his daring enlargement of the range and increase of the sensitiveness of the Spanish language as an instrument for the expression of contemporary thought and feeling—Ramón Pérez de Ayala. It is no accident that after Blasco Ibáñez he should be the most frequently translated Spanish writer. His novel, *Belarmino y Apolonio*, published in 1921, has been translated into Russian, Italian, English and German. I know my insistence on this book will be disapproved of by the author, who sees in *Belarmino* merely a stepping-stone in his ascent to classic objectivity and maturity of style. Another of his more recent novels, *Tigre Juan*, has just been translated into English by Professor Walter Starkie; his early short stories, a volume entitled *Prometeo*, have been translated into English, French and Italian, and *El ombligo del mundo*, the predecessor of *Tigre Juan*, into English and German. It is, of course, quite impossible for me to give you an adequate impression of the range, power, and magical charm of this great novelist and poet. I shall only insist on the moral aspect of this author's work. The evolution of his ideas is typical of that of other thinkers and writers of our time, but in the case of Ayala the affirmation of positive values, a graceful, confident and almost gay acceptance of life is the conclusion at which he arrives, and which he expresses in nearly all his work written after about 1915; a certain not uncritical optimism and a gentle tenderness culminating in the vital affirmation of some of his lyrical pages, both in poetry (*El sendero innumerable; El sendero andante*) and in prose:

> Que con la nueva gracia matutina
> mi vida sin cesar
> renazca, como el prado y la colina,
> y la rosa y el mar . . .
> Y aun mejor que de Dios, ser de mí mismo,
> y por mi voluntad
> obra sin fin. Las noches, un abismo.
> Cada día, una edad . . .
> Y que el suceso próspero o adverso
> sea tal para tí,
> que exclames en tu día: 'El universo
> halla su quicio y su razón en mí'.

The talks in the 'Time to Spare' Series are shortly to be published in book form by Messrs. Allen and Unwin, with additional chapters on the voluntary organisations which exist to help the unemployed, and on the legislation regarding unemployment, including the new Act.

The Cornucopia

> Ichor-press of the hands, flow
> With liquids of the spirit's fruits,
> Shared loins, the plough, may sow
> Upright and gazing yield, a son;
> Within the cloudy breast rotate
> Shaped minor sun, whose mutinous streams run
> Crimson, to irrigate
> The teeming landscape of one.
>
> Descend, nurturing rain
> Never to cease, of time,
> Enrichening thought and limb
> Like stalk and bloom, maintain
> Enlarging growth, and dismiss
> The limit of the singular,
> Identify by apotheosis
> With one sun, every stricken star.
>
> Abundant summer to come,
> Succeeding silver youth,
> Alter to gold the sum
> Of youth's silver pith;
> Although closing the grain
> Of flesh, let the heart grow
> Higher with changing pain
> Which into outward balms may flow:
>
> That, mature tree,
> The summer man may stand
> To both suns vertically,
> And surface pests withstand;
> That, thousand in boughs
> Birds, the stricken
> Of soul, as stars to those birds quicken,
> May, in him, find rest enough.

GEORGE BARKER

Machine-Gun Civilisation

Merchants of Death. By H. C. Engelbrecht and F. C. Hanighen. Routledge. 7s. 6d.

Reviewed by MICHAEL ROBERTS

CONFIDENCE, like kindliness, begins at home, and the degree of civilisation of the world is proportional to the amount of mutual confidence, not mechanical complication, in our lives. 'Armed security' is a mask of uncivilisation. Further, it is a contradiction in terms: there is in history no example whatever of two mutually suspicious nations successfully avoiding war by huge defensive armaments. Armaments beget fear, fear begets armaments; the double burden becomes intolerable, and the result is war.

Merchants of Death is a careful documented study of the history of the arms industry. It is not hysterical: it shows the very great difficulties that stand in the way of any solution, and wherever possible it uses official statistics and reports. It includes twenty-one pages of references and bibliography, and it is written in a thoroughly readable and unsensational manner.

In 1576, the gunsmiths of Liège sold arms to the Spanish invaders of the Netherlands. During the French Revolution, German and Austrian manufacturers supplied arms to their French enemies by way of Switzerland. In 1851, J. P. Morgan had purchased 5,000 obsolete and dangerous carbines from the Union Government at $3.50 each, and resold them to the same Government, through General Frémont, at $22 apiece. After the war, the Court of Claims allowed Morgan the full sum. In 1893, a U.S. Government committee found that Carnegie, Phipps Co. had been systematically supplying defective armour plate to the U.S. Navy.

The heavy armament industry is strictly international in character. In the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 both sides were equipped with Krupp guns. By 1912, 26,000 Krupp guns had been sold to Germany and 27,000 to other countries. The Krupp armour plate, invented in 1893, was on sale to all the world; any country could manufacture it on payment of a licence fee and a royalty of £9 per ton. In 1914, the navies of Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Japan and the United States were armoured with Kruppised steel.

The Maxim gun was invented in England in 1884 by an American who had adopted British citizenship. It was first manufactured by Vickers, and was sold to France, Switzerland, Italy (where the Russian consul at Spezzia became an agent for the gun), Germany, Russia, Spain, and China. Maxims were among the Vickers guns sold to the Boers. 'One Pom-Pom manned by four Boers . . . would put a whole battery of British artillery out of action in a very short time', said Maxim.

Maxim and Zaharoff, agent for the Nordenfeldt gun, began a series of international amalgamations, which ended by making Zaharoff the agent of Vickers. Zaharoff was responsible for re-equipping the Dardanelles fortifications. The excellence of the material supplied was discovered by the British Navy in 1915.

In Russia, there was a struggle between the interests represented by Zaharoff and backed by the Société Générale, and Schneider, the French manufacturer, backed by the Union Parisienne. Banks, newspapers and armament manufacturers began to work together to secure contracts by the use of financial pressure and manipulation of popular opinion through war scares. In the pre-War years Krupp was able to influence German opinion through the *Rheinisch-Westphaelische Zeitung*, the Berlin *Taegliche Rundschau*, and the *Neueste Nachrichten*. The present-day combinations are well known.

Sometimes this method has been combined with illegal pressure. Immediately before the war, Rear-Admiral Fujii of the Japanese Navy received, in return for his 'goodwill', sums of over £1,000 each from three well-known British firms; but in Rumania, as a result of the Seletzki case of last year, it was revealed that during the 'Russian invasion' scare of 1930 far greater sums had been spent in bribery. General Popescu, who was one of the many officials involved, shot himself. Dr. Goga, a Cabinet Minister, has revealed that when, at the climax of the scare, he interviewed a member of the Regency Council, he was asked: 'Come, Mr. Goga, why all this agitation? You can now rest assured that all will be well. We have just sent a large order for war material to the Skoda works'.

The armament firms are represented directly in parliaments. As Mr. Snowden said in the House, during his pre-War campaign: 'The Honourable Member for the Osgoldcross Division of Yorkshire . . . . I can congratulate him on his election last week as Honourable President of the Free Church Council . . . . is the holder of 3,200 shares in John Brown's and 2,100 in Cammell Laird's. Another of the Members for Sheffield figures in practically every list, as he figures in every debate in this House when there is a possibility of more money being spent on arms and ships. . . . He is a shareholder in John Brown's, a director of Cammell Laird, also a debenture trustee of the Fairfield Co., and a shareholder in the Coventry Ordnance Co.'

During the Naval Disarmament Conference of 1927, Mr. William Baldwin Shearer was sent to Geneva (at a salary of $25,000 a year) by Mr. Bardo, of the New York Shipbuilding Company, Mr. Wakeman, of Bethlehem Steel, and Mr. Palen, of the Newport News Shipbuilding Company. He was intimate with members of the American delegation, assisted the newspaper correspondents by giving them 'hand-outs' which the *New York Times* correspondent described as 'violently and tactlessly' anti-British, and when a newspaper described him as 'the man who broke up the Conference' he forwarded the cutting to his employers.

The international character of the armaments trade assumes another aspect in time of war. Complete suppression of the traffic in fats, nickel, aluminium, manganese, would cripple both sides. Wars would be shorter, less disastrous, and far less profitable to manufacturers. Thanks to a system of interlocking directorates, Germany was able to obtain war supplies of nickel from the French mines in New Caledonia, and an annual supply of 20,000 tons of aluminium manufactured in Switzerland from French bauxite. Three hundred tons of carbide-cyanamide were sold to the German-owned Lonza Company by the Société Commerciale des Carbures. On the other hand, Senator Possehl, a German steel manufacturer, continued to supply his Russian factories with raw material from his Swedish works; and German soldiers, in the attack on Fort Douaumont, found themselves faced by barbed-wire delivered to Switzerland only two months before by the Magdeburger Draht-und-Kabelwerke.

More information has come to light since *Merchants of Death* was written. A committee appointed by the Ministry of Munitions in 1916 reported that

(*a*) Past prices (of the six big armament firms) have contained an excessive profit which they are probably unwilling to disclose.

(*b*) Their system of Cost Accounting is, in some cases, incomplete and illusory and, if corrected, would disclose the actual costs.

(*c*) The organisation and management of their works were inferior to those of other shell manufacturers.

This committee saved the country, and cost the shareholders over £400,000 a week*.

Since the end of the War, the international complexity of the industry has increased. Italian factories, as the Hirtenberg affair showed in 1932, are engaged in arming Hungary. Schneider and Skoda are selling war material to Jugoslavia and Rumania. Vickers, in 1930, sold Russia 60 of the latest and most powerful tanks. In October, 1933, M. Sennac stated at the French Radical Socialist Congress that Schneider had recently supplied 400 tanks to Germany, through Holland.

So the cycle continues: press campaigns, contributions to party funds, international loans, contracts, fear in foreign countries, more press campaigns, increase in power of militarist parties, more contracts, demands for 'security', more contracts. The international traffic plays only a small part in this vicious cycle (only 10 per cent. of the armaments manufactured are exported), and its abolition would not end war. Furthermore, abolition would be bitterly opposed by nations which have no factories of their own, and by nations which have. The bigger our factories, say the latter, the safer we are in time of war, even if it involves supplying some armaments to potential enemies now. The root of the trouble is fear, lack of confidence, and the willingness of the public to be duped.

The problem is not insoluble. It springs from our own weaknesses, and it can be solved by our own efforts. The most useful thing which we can do at the moment is to spread as widely as possible a knowledge of the facts. War, and preparation for war, Messrs. Engelbrecht and Hanighen imply, will only cease when the peoples of the world compel their governments to recognise that they will not fight. There is a tendency to say that the manufacturers of armaments are not to blame; they have merely succumbed to temptation. The private manufacture of armaments puts a greater strain upon the shareholder's morality than it will bear. The dignitaries who held shares seem to have realised this, for they have handed the burden on to someone else by selling out, just as their predecessors sold their brothels in Southwark. It may be necessary to arm ourselves against the dupes of certain interests, but that is no reason why we should tolerate ignorance and humbug in the press, publicity campaigns conducted in and out of Parliament by interested parties, and a system by which potential enemies co-operate to arm each other for war; and no reason whatever why we should regard the men engaged in fomenting international suspicion and distrust as anything but the deliberate enemies of civilisation.

*Quoted in *Four and a Half Years*. By the Rt. Hon. Christopher Addison. Pages 166 and 169

The Listener's Book Chronicle

Ranji. By Roland Wild. Rich and Cowan. 15s.

RANJI—for as in the case of the Yorker, what else would you call him?—authorised a biography but insisted that it should not be written by a famous cricketer, lest his cricketing celebrity should obscure his serious life's work. Mr. Wild has obeyed the implied behest and maintained a proper sense of proportion. A life of Ranji with no cricket in it would have been utterly one-sided, for it was an important part of his life. It made him a figure of world-wide fame and popularity and by so doing aided him, beyond computation, in his career as a ruler. So Mr. Wild gives us plenty of cricket. Those who are too young to remember this lithe figure in the ballooning silk shirt and the buttoned sleeves will find statistics to convince them that W. G. was right when he told an after-dinner audience that they would never see a better bat than the Jam Sahib if they lived a hundred years. Even more interesting, perhaps, because less well known, is the account of his early days when he was 'coaching' at Cambridge, before going to Trinity, an unknown young Indian, playing for a town club, the Cassandra, and making hundred after hundred in Parker's Piece with a gorgeous heterodoxy which, after much hard toil, was to be moulded into a supreme technique.

That was the English part of his life. The Indian part began by his adoption by a kinsman, the then Jam Sahib of Nawanagar, as his heir, and was followed by his subsequent passing over in favour of the son of a Sind concubine, through a Zenana conspiracy. While he was at Cambridge he enjoyed an income splendid for most undergraduates, utterly inadequate for one who had instincts of princely generosity and gave away gold cigarette cases to his friends as other men give cigarettes. His impecuniosity was on a magnificent scale but he accepted it with a light heart. Not so his disinheriting. Against this he always struggled and pulled such wires as he could. Even in the midst of his greatest cricketing triumphs this seems to have occupied his mind. In the end Jessagi, the interloper, died childless, of typhoid bred in the festering slums of his capital, and Ranji came into his kingdom. From that moment he became not merely a king who believed in kingship, but a loyal, resolute, adroit and far-seeing statesman. He made great schemes for rebuilding his capital, for irrigating his state, for building railways, for combating famine. It was hard to find the money and he seems to have thought the Government of India unduly 'nagging' in their comments and enquiries. There remained in him something of that early light-hearted gorgeousness as regards money; he enjoyed the silver coach in which he drove to the Durbar at Delhi; he loved jewels and especially emeralds. He resented what he called the Government's 'pinpricks' and the end of his life was rather seriously embittered by controversy; but nothing could abate his most genuine loyalty; he flung himself into the War zealously and his only complaint was not of his own ill-health but of not having enough to do. He deserves for epitaph the words he wrote to his friend Colonel Berthon, on the loss of his eye: 'I kept absolute control of myself and behaved in a manner you would like a friend of yours to behave and worthy, I hope, of a Rajput'.

It Was the Nightingale. By Ford Madox Ford Heinemann. 10s. 6d.

For some not very clear reason it was the nightingale that caused Mr. Ford to pour out his own melody, not indeed in any passionate outpouring manner, but rather in the notes of a man taking stock of his own position, for this is the tale of his life since the War. No direct tale either, but one constructed with all the wiles of the novelist, including the 'time-shift' of which he is an acknowledged master. It is therefore very readable, often amusing, sometimes provocative of indignation, and here and there illuminating. It illuminates chiefly, as it should do, Mr. Ford himself, but there are admirable sketches of Galsworthy and Conrad, and lighter, more amusing, thumbnails of Mr. Ezra Pound and Mr. James Joyce (whose *Ulysses*, by the way, so carefully locked away from the eyes of the police in this country, has just become a best-seller in the States).

When Mr. Ford came back from the War, completely broken away from his life as a writer, he settled down to small-scale farming, to be gradually lured back to his real mission in life: the threads wove themselves together again. But post-War England, he decided, was no place for an artist to live in, with its confusion of values, its treatment of those who had fought (Mr. Ford takes this rather too hard), its destruction of Regent Street; and especially was it no place for a man with weak lungs. So for the last decade or so he has lived in his beloved Provence, a little in Paris, and also a little in New York. Paris, after all, was the place where, just after the War, there was the most literary and artistic activity, where also the Middle West came into contact with our jaded continent, and it was Mr. Ernest Hemingway who, more than anyone else, helped Mr. Ford with that gallant and admirable venture, the *transatlantic review*. The history of that publication is extremely entertaining and revealing, with its medley of high literary and artistic achievement, its Russian exiles, American patrons and French financiers and lawyers. But perhaps the most interestingly intimate part of the whole book is where Mr. Ford tells us about the originals of his characters, or some of them, in his great masterpiece *Some Do Not* and its successors, which can well be regarded as the supreme novelistic achievement of our generation: we know how Tietjens came into being, and the abominable Sylvia, and what it was Mr. Ford tried to do in that work. We could wish, indeed, that Mr. Ford had talked more about his writings, for he is first and foremost and all the time an artist, and an extremely accomplished prose-writer, though he does not here exhibit the formal virtues of the Latin race he so much admires. But the novelist has to a great degree swamped the autobiographer in this volume; the book gives us a view of the times as much as it does of the hero, who appears in it to illustrate the age we live in—or did live in till quite recently—rather than to lay his heart bare before us. What his opinion of us is cannot fail to be clear, of us who live in this island. The poet is not honoured in this country as he is in France; we care very little for the arts. This is to some extent true, and the battle Matthew Arnold fought and lost has to be fought and lost over again in every generation. Still, we do not go so far as to burn books in this country—except occasionally at the Customs Houses—and so much Mr. Ford concedes us in this book, which is not his best, but which, like all his work, is well worth reading.

Persons One and Three. By Shepard Ivory Franz Whittesley House. 7s. 6d.

The title of this book is an intriguing one and suggests a novel rather than a psychological work; actually it is an account of a dissociated personality, two parts of which were successfully fused into one under the author's treatment, 'Person Two' remaining undiscovered. The man in question was found by the police in Los Angeles wandering about under the impression that he was still in the time of the War as a private in the British Army. Coming under the notice of Professor Franz, he was able to write a bald recital of his life from 1915 onwards, starting from the time when he appeared in England with the Belgian refugees, up to the present. He sees service in France, is gassed, later sent to East Africa; during the journey he has an unpleasant dose of what the Army knows as No. 1 Field Punishment, which causes an attempt at suicide. He then contracts fever, is sent home and invalided out; joins the Red Cross as a driver, behaves heroically in an air-raid; finally is returned to America, as he is apparently an American citizen, and is there taken on for propaganda work. After the War he works in the automobile trade fairly successfully, but is led from place to place by a wanderlust which is really a desire to find himself.

He is finally adopted by a lady who is a Seventh Day Adventist and imagines that he is her long-lost son. Of his previous life and identity he has no inkling. Suddenly for no apparent reason he changes to the self who knows his own life-story up to the War, and appears as an Irishman who had emigrated to America and returned to Ireland to enlist; yet the war-time self is now forgotten, until by dint of question and answer it is brought back to his mind, and the two selves are thus more or less reunited. There is still left, however, a gap of some months which is held to belong to another part of his personality—the second person of the three, which remains in obscurity at the end of the book—though it is not easy to see why the gap should not have been merely the result of a deeper 'fugue' pertaining to his war-time self. The link between the two reunited selves is largely effected by the mention of a place in East Africa where

a pet monkey, of which he was very fond, was destroyed by a leopard; a tragedy for which he felt he was to blame and which he therefore repressed.

The story is told mainly in dialogue form, and in a deliberately matter-of-fact manner; it is thus attractive in its simplicity as a human story, yet one wishes that the character, the tastes, the feelings of the subject as a human being could have been portrayed in a less shadowy manner. Apart from the different stretches of time in his life, remembered in dissociated sections, there is little to suggest a Jekyll and Hyde type of change. Neither do we get the impression of a true change of personality, with a corresponding difference in characteristics, such as is found in the classic examples studied by Morton Prince and by Janet. Again, we are allowed to know nothing of the emotional background which predisposed the subject to the states. Presumably he is peacefully back in his native land and best left undisturbed, but he would certainly be a find for a psychoanalyst.

Arctic Village. By Robert Marshall. Jarrolds. 18s.

This attractive book is the by-product of a scientific investigation. Mr. Marshall spent fifteen months in the Koyukuk territory of Alaska, ostensibly collecting data about forestry, but really making pleasant and instructive contacts with the remarkable community which inhabits this Arctic oasis. His claim that the Koyukuk Basin is the home of a distinctive civilisation is excessive. The seventy-odd whites and the forty-odd Eskimos who live in this Arctic outpost are no more than a backwater of American civilisation, left behind after the flood of the Klondike gold rushes of the 'nineties; and what distinctiveness they have is that imposed by geographic and economic isolation and not that which arises from any racial integrity. Yet it is easy to understand how Mr. Marshall's ardour should kindle to this little community, even to the extent of sometimes glorifying its unusualness. The bulk of its members are the tough prospectors who survived the gold stampedes and who survived also their own failure to make the lucky strike. They are, therefore, a breed hardy and adaptable and determined, who have managed to root themselves more than two hundred miles from the least semblance of civilisation, and who have established there, in conjunction with the Eskimos, a happy and effective communal life. Mr. Marshall's account of that life is a very full and revealing one. He expounds its economic values and its ethical values; he describes the trades and occupations of these Arctic spartans, their candid morality, their modes of travel, their dress, their customs and their food. And from this careful and well-documented depiction of a survival of values which are rare in the civilised world, there stands out again and again the evidence that though life is frugal enough in Koyukuk it is singularly happy. North of the Arctic circle, it seems, work is always a contest, and often a pleasure, but never a bore.

This is the second book in the last couple of years to paint Arctic life in all the colours of the Aurora Borealis; and this one is more continuously credible than Jan Weltzl's *The Golden North*. If this good news from the North is continued, the happy isles of the South Seas will take second place in our dreams of the earthly paradise. But *Arctic Village* is not a sudden rush to the head of a romantic tourist. It is an assembly of evidence which carries conviction, and it is written in the idiom of the authentic traveller.

The Modern English Prison. By L. W. Fox Routledge. 10s. 6d.
Prisons. By M. Hamblin Smith. Lane. 2s. 6d.

Here are two excellent books that should be read by all who followed the excellent broadcasts in the 'In Trouble' series, and who wish to pursue the question further. Mr. Fox was, until recently, the Secretary of the Prison Commission, and therefore has an up-to-date knowledge of the Prison System of England and Wales. His book depicts the developments of this system since Sidney and Beatrice Webb wrote their classic, *English Prisons under Local Government*. After a short but informative historical outline, the author describes the efforts that have been made, during the past 35 years, to introduce the new principle, enunciated by the Gladstone Committee in 1895, that 'prison treatment should have, as its primary and concurrent objects, deterrence and reformation'. The innovations are too new to judge of their success, but it is good to read that 'recent enquiry has shown reason to suppose that, of persons committed to prison for the first time, some 85–90 per cent. do not return to prison'. Then follow clear and concise accounts of the buildings and accommodation; the classification, the discipline and the employment of prisoners: the various methods of dealing with the different classes of criminal. The chapter on the Borstal System supplies an explanation of this much criticised innovation. The vital statistics have been left to the last chapter, so that the reader cannot say that he has been bored by figures; the bibliography and appendices are excellent.

Dr. Hamblin Smith is also an ex-official, having spent over 35 years as the medical officer at local and convict prisons. During the last 13 years he was at Birmingham and the quality of his work there can be judged by the extracts from his annual reports that have appeared in the Reports of the Prison Commissioners. He is a well-known psychologist and is one of the editors of *The Journal of Mental Science*. His first chapter, on 'The History of Prisons', is one of the best summaries that have been written on the subject. The rest of the book is mainly a discussion on the penal theories that have been tried, are being tried, or may be tried. Is a prison a place of safe custody only? Is it a place in which pain is inflicted as a retribution for some unlawful act committed by an offender? Is it a place in which pain is inflicted as a deterrent to the offender himself or as a deterrent to others? Is it a place in which the offender may be reformed? Dr. Hamblin Smith argues these questions in a masterly way, which is the more convincing by the citing of actual cases that have come under his own professional care. In his conclusions he pleads for psychological treatment of prisoners; but he is no crank boosting up new theories. He is 'a convinced and a quite unrepentant Freudian', and he admits that psychological measures of treatment applied to prisoners present grave difficulties; yet he advocates the use of the services of duly qualified psychological practitioners unconnected with the prison staff. He asks for an altered attitude by society regarding a prison; it should not be a place of which we are ashamed but a place of moral regeneration and on the same plane as any other mental or general hospital.

The New Philanthropy. By Elizabeth Macadam Allen and Unwin. 7s. 6d.

Out of a rich and varied experience Miss Macadam has written this study of our modern social services and particularly of that borderland where official administrators and voluntary social workers of many kinds meet, co-operate, combine or even (as in the case of hospitals) compete with one another; and the first thing to be said about the book refers not so much to its argument as its immense informative value. In a modern world, where the literature of social administration (and the consequent understanding of the subject) is miserably out of proportion to the need for it, a volume of this kind is a godsend. It should be a *vade-mecum* of all students in the Social Science Departments of our universities and not of them only.

What Miss Macadam sets her heart on is the promotion of voluntary social service and its better formulation *vis-à-vis* the ever-growing structure of statutory services. It is indeed a rich field for research. The trouble is that the subject becomes ever more complex as 'excavation' proceeds. And as for charting the lines where official action should end and voluntary action begin, or where the two should blend, that is indeed a daunting task. To begin with, it leads at once to the discovery that neither of the two kinds of effort, State or private, is yet co-ordinated within itself. As regards private agencies, we have the National Council of Social Service (now partly subsidised by the Ministry of Labour) and we have a growing network of local councils in the big cities. But to co-ordinate all kinds of local organisations is only one of their objectives and, by reason of its difficulty, not yet the most prominent. For, in truth, social workers are a most unruly crowd! Perhaps that is a necessary defect of their qualities. Anyhow the development and intensification of voluntary efforts is a far more grateful task. And here broadcasting has now come into the field as by far the greatest promoter of voluntary service yet discovered, even in the annals of this most charitable of countries. (Miss Macadam might have dwelt more on Radiophilanthropy). Indeed the B.B.C.'s appeals over the air can be so potent, that there is a corresponding responsibility on it to educate, as well as to stir up, the enthusiasm of listeners.

As regards the State social services, Miss Macadam describes rather than criticises them. Nor was it her business to cover the

whole field. For instance, the great national schemes of Health, Unemployment and Pensions Insurance—all of them contributory and based upon employment—are outside her picture. Yet they all need watching and all need better articulation with each other and also with other State and local services for the worker and his family. What is wanted is a grand new survey—and a continuing survey—of the whole field. Finance is one great issue, internal administration is another, and external co-operation with voluntary agencies is a third. And this third issue embraces the great question of the place of the social worker, nominated and unpaid, *within* the administrative machine. Here, in a word, is the new philanthropy. Examples are the Juvenile Advisory Committees, Local Employment Committees, Courts of Referees, the Appeals Tribunals and Advisory Committees of the new Unemployment Assistance Board, District Sub-committees for Public Assistance and Children's Care Committees for the schools. All these—and there are others—are useful ways of breaking (should it not be 'braking') our great new equipment of public services on to the back of the public. The volunteer is proving, after all, to be a necessary and useful agent of the State. To review these and a host of other urgent matters, Miss Macadam proposes the establishment of a voluntary Central Board of Charities to work in conjunction with a Permanent Board of Statutory Social Services. About the former we are not so sure, but it would be a fine thing if the Government could be persuaded to make a beginning by quickly setting up the latter.

A Bibliography of Gilbert White of Selborne. With a Biography and Descriptive Account of Selborne By Edward A. Martin. Halton. 10s. 6d.

The distinguishing quality of Gilbert White's *Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne* is the combination of a meticulous habit of mind with a free, almost airy and unrestrained imaginative perception. Gilbert White, for all his obvious limitations of character, environment and office, was the possessor of a poetic spirit, a spirit that found a reflection of itself in the light of the objects that it beheld. His charm lies in the reconciliation of these opposite qualities, and whether he describes the oak trees functioning as alembics on misty February days, or the habits and probable destinies of the late swallows that made such unexpected appearances under Selborne Hangar, or the vagaries of his pet tortoise, he has always that rare and most delightful combination of minute intimacy with the imagination that sees beyond the mere appearance. He makes of himself a reflector of his world, without ever straining to step outside the natural and set boundaries of his personality. He deserves a more sensitively critical biographer than Mr. Martin. Mr. Martin is an enthusiast, a worshipper even, and he is honest and straightforward and very obviously well-meaning, but he has none of that charm that has distinguished the object of his enthusiasm. In place of criticism it may be kindest to let him speak for himself: we may select a passage at hazard. It is all the same.

White had the advantage of a most interesting parish, and he was undoubtedly the right man in the right place. His was a happy life made content by silent communings with nature. The influences of a happy and contented life are never lost. Some of Gilbert White's facts may now be out of date, but his book will ever live. In its influence lies its charm, and through it the happy and contented Gilbert lives. What though he lies beneath a simple gravestone in his native churchyard, marked only by a plain 'G. W.'; his is a name that requires no monument, etc., etc.

Unfortunately Mr. Martin has been trying to supply one, with embellishments, and the vapid flow continues through the short biography and the description of the village and its houses. No worse, one may say, than a thousand other guide-books—and no better. As a guide-book it may well be useful to those who like guide-books.

The bibliography is very thorough and composed with praiseworthy and meticulous care.

The Elements of Experimental Embryology. By J. S. Huxley and G. R. de Beer. Cambridge. 25s.

Constructed as we are, it seems that we must demand that there should be something miraculous in the origin of our universe and of ourselves, but that we should exhibit no reaction of any kind to such commonplaces as the birth of kittens to a cat, or the emergence of a chick out of the egg of a hen. And yet, in point of fact, if the origin of our universe and the evolution of life, culminating in man, verges on the miraculous, then something equally miraculous occurs each time the simple egg pursues its development into the adult organism with all its complexity. It is the case that the phenomena and the problems of the development of the complex living organism out of the egg have attracted the attention of scientists and philosophers for many hundreds of years, but until relatively recently those who have watched the individual proceed from stage to stage to become moulded into the likeness of the parents from which it came, were content to indulge in adventurous speculation. Latterly, however, into embryology the experimental method has been introduced, and embryology is at last becoming an exact science. Indeed, there is both need and stimulus for the development of experimental embryology, for, during the last thirty years, one of the most amazing developments in the whole history of biology has taken place. The fundamental laws of organic inheritance are now known. A multitude of the details of structure and of behaviour exhibited by the adult individual are represented—are, so to say, predetermined—by hereditary factors (*genes*) within the egg in which the individual has its origin. Thus, of the two schools of thought concerning problems of development, the epigenetic and the preformationist, the latter has received a certain reinforcement from the discoveries of genetics.

It is now generally accepted by embryologists that there is preformation, predetermination, in respect of hereditary constitution, but that development itself is not predetermined but is epigenetic. It can be predicted, as a result of genetic discovery, that one of the most active fields of research in biology in the immediate future will be that which is concerned with the mechanisms of development, for information in this field must be made available before we can understand what the gene is by knowing more exactly what it does, how it influences the development of the character to which it corresponds. The gap between the genetic constitution of the fertilised egg and the characterisation of the completely developed individual must now be bridged. This being the case, anyone who can present a critical synthetic survey of what already is known as a result of the employment of the experimental method in the field of embryology, is performing a most useful service, especially to those who are about to embark upon a career in biology. But so enormous is the field, and so active of late has been the research, that only a small fraction of the whole can be dealt with in this book of some 500 pages which, of necessity, disregards the observational and comparative study of embryology, and which, in addition, exercises the most rigorous selection of the available experimental and physiological material. The authors deliberately restricted themselves to a consideration of the earliest period of development up to the stage at which the main organs are laid down. The attempt to show what has been done, to indicate profitable lines of investigation, to throw light into the dark places, to demonstrate the relation between hereditary factors and development is very successful. It is an excellent book, lavishly illustrated, exceedingly well written, and its quality is such as must necessarily add to the already high reputation of its authors.

Voyages avec Frédéric Chopin. By Edouard Ganche Paris, Mercure de France. 15fr.

In this book of miscellaneous essays, M. Ganche, the president of the French Société Frédéric Chopin, gives us much that is of value. His investigations have established, for instance, that Chopin's father was of pure French descent, and not, as was currently alleged, the descendant of some Pole who had come to Lorraine in the days when this duchy was held by King Stanislaus of Poland (1736-1766). But an impulse prompted him to go to Poland at the age of eighteen or so. He settled there, acquired Polish nationality, married a Pole, and thenceforth thought of France as 'a foreign country'. Legally, his son could never have been regarded as a French subject before having accomplished many formalities. Spiritually, of course, the composer was Polish to the core. Other chapters deal with Chopin in Majorca; with his visit to Scotland in 1848, where he was the guest of Lord Torphichen, a brother-in-law of his pupil Jane Stirling; and with the Oxford University Press edition of Chopin's works, prepared by M. Ganche on the basis of copies of these works which Chopin himself revised and which long remained in Jane Stirling's possession. M. Ganche replies (quite convincingly as a rule) to criticisms of some of the new readings provided in this edition. He also offers remarks on the interpretation of Chopin's music.

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HARRAP

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The Future of Trade Unionism

(*Continued from page* 61)

with the universities but with specialised institutions set up and maintained by the Unions themselves.

I have not contemplated in this talk violent change in the social system, but I would not care to predict what attempts in that direction the future may hold in store. The character of the British people, its faith in democratic institutions, its recognition of the value of personal liberty, finds no stronger expression than in the Trade Union movement. No institution has yet been evolved for giving greater opportunities for self-expression within its own sphere to its members than the Trade Union movement. Our industrial and political history reveal an enlargening freedom for the individual which makes suggestion of dictatorship repugnant. Trade Unionism as a voluntary organisation of workers can function only in an atmosphere where it has air to breathe, and any attempt to impose a system of dictatorship will evoke strenuous resistance from the Trade Unions. It may be that in the future of Trade Unionism we shall find not the least valuable of its contributions to society, in the preservation and consolidation of that freedom of opinion and action for which the Tolpuddle Martyrs, a hundred years ago, suffered and sacrificed.